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BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL

ON THE GENERAL CONSTRUCTION OF A BRASS-FOUNDRY.

In erecting new works, or altering old ones, many things require to be considered in order to save time and labour in the process of manufacturing, as well as to save expense in the first cost.

It is always good economy to employ a properly qualified person, acquainted with the whole details of the business, to furnish plans for new or altered works—though there is often some difficulty is obtaining an individual so qualified.

We lay down the following general principles, in the hope that they will prave useful to those who may have to construct a brass foundry.

Very much depends upon the extent of the works required. For moderate purposes there will be required—

A warchouse, including offices, &c. A pattern shop and pattern room. A moulding shop.
A casting shop.
A dressing room.
A finishing shop.
A lipping and colouring room.
A Juquering room.

The sizes of all the shops and rooms must be left to the judgment of the employer, who alone knows the class of work he purposes carrying on, and the extent of space required for his several operations.

It is exceedingly desirable that a view of all the interiors of the shops should be had from the ware-liouse, if possible. Connected with the warehouse should be a store-room and packing-hall.

The Pattern Shop and Pattern Room are usually connected, yet distinct. Both must be accessible from the warehouse. The pattern room is best lighted from the roof, in order to give the largest amount of wall space. Abundance of light is essential in this room. In the pattern shop a few side windows are desirable, as lines are better seen by side light than by roof light.

It is common to have both Moulding and Casting Shops in one, and for a small work the plan is wel' enough; but where a dozen moulders are employed, it is better to divide the work and separate the shops, i.e. which case the floors should not be on the same level, but the casting-shop floor should be 2 feet

6 inches above the level of the moulding-shop floor. This arrangement prevents all stooping on the part of the men when removing the flasks from the benches or tubs to the floor of the easting shop. The moulders never enter the casting shop, but simply place the flasks on the casting-shop floor, through openings in the partition dividing the shops. The moulding shop should therefore be narrow, so as to give the men but a short distance to carry the flasks from the benches to the easting-shop floor. The enoulding shop must be well lighted. This is done best from above, immediately over the tubs. tubs are usually placed along the whole length of the shop; but where space is valuable, more moulds can be accommodated by placing the tubs at right angles to the wall, two being placed back to back, us desks are in a counting-house. The sand-cellar should be as near the centre of the shop as possible, with a shoot from the outside, so as to save any ofurther carrying. In the moulding shop are placed the drying stove and core stove; and, if possible, these should be heated by means of steam jackets, so as to save fires in the moulding shop. This plan has also the advantage of keeping the place much cleaner. A water-tap and sink inside this shop is a great convenience.

The Casting Shop should be of the same length as the moulding shop. The furnaces are best placed midway between the ends of the shop, and on the opposite side from the moulding shop. On the one side of the furnaces should be the coke cellar, with a shoot from the outside. On the other side, the ash cellar. Near the spot where the boxes are poured, gratings should be placed, on which the boxes are to be emptied, the sand passing by an inclined plane back into the moulding shop. One of the most important things to be attended to in the construction of a casting shop is its ventilation. There should be openings at the floor-level and in the roof, so as to create a current.

The Dressing Room must adjoin the casting shop, so that all the castings can be easily handed over, on being weighed, for the purpose of removing the grates and dressing the castings, which in turn are handed into the warehouse and again weighed. Hence the necessity of having the dressing room adjoining the warehouse. The size of this room need not be large, and all the furniture required for it is a bench with a few vices.

The Finishing Shop is one on which there is a great variety of opinions. It should, however, be roomy, rectangular, and well lighted, either from the roof or from the sides. Most people prufer the bonches round the walls and the lathes, &c., in the centre of the floor; others prefer the benches short, and at right angles to the wall, the workmen are

placed in pairs, back to back, one lathe is placed at the end of each bench, and the vertical, buffs, &c., in the centre of the floor. Others, again, would place the benches in the centre of the shop, leaving the walls for the other tools. Some will have the lathes all driven from below, so as to show no belting above, while others disapprove altogether of this plan, and prefer the older method of driving all from above. These are matters which must be left very much to individual judgment.

The Dipping and Colouring Room must adjoin the finishing shop, and open into it. It must be well supplied with water and sinks, and have abundance of ventilation. If possible, let the light be from the north.

The Lacquering Room must have a window opening into the finishing shop, and a door or window opening into the warehouse. It must be so constructed as to be perfectly free from smoke. It must also be kept free from dust, and should be lighted from the north, and be well ventilated.

MODELLING AND PATTERN-MAKING.

Modelling and Pattern-making are distinct branches of business. They are also distinct from that of a brassfounder; but, though distinct, yet they are as essential to him as the bending of glass tubes and the construction of glass apparatus are to the chemist. Where work is divided, and every one has his own department to perform, like so many parts of an engine, it may matter little whether or not he can put his hand to modelling and making of Batterns; but, in a country where small workshops abound, it is of importance that the general principles of modelling and making of patterns be well understood. Such particulars are here given as will prevent a workman from appearing bewildered when questioned on or required to perform some little work pertaining to either branch.

The materials commonly employed for modelling are pipeclay and stucco. The former is used for work of a protracted nature, the latter for straight flat models which can be finished off at once. Pipeclay, which is decomposed felspar, is made into a putty with water or glycerine: the glycerine prevents its getting hard for a considerable time.

Almost the only tools required for modelling

(save some thin brass wire for cutting and dividing, such as is used for cutting soap or cheese) are represented in Fig. 1. They are made of box wood.

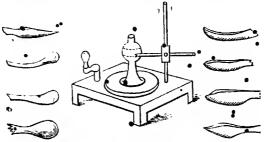


Fig. 1.-Horizontal Lathe and Modelling Tools.

They are represented one-fourth size. The handles are 6 inches long; the sharpest edges are slightly micked; the others are all more or less blunt.

The horizontal lathe or turning-table represented in Fig. 1 will be understood from the woodcut. It is provided with a tool-rest; in revolving the handle on the left, it operates on pulleys below, and turns the circular table on which the model is placed. It will be found exceedingly useful for circular work.

A few nicely planed boards, of various sizes, are always in requisition. On these boards an outline of scroll or other work is drawn, the clay placed thereon and modelled.

Clay is modelled with the hand and wood tools, mostly by pressure. The clay adheres to wood, or the turning-table, when slightly moistened, and requires no other fixture. A very little practice will enable a man of ordinary abilities to accomplish much in this material, which would take greater expense and longer time to fashion in wood.

Models, made either in clay or wood, and which are intended for immediate use, require to be made larger than the size given, by one quarter of an inch to every foot. For this purpose, it is best to construct a measure or rule properly divided, so as to save time and calculation.

Should it be required, however, to make a metal pattern from the clay or wood, then the shrinkage will be double, and the model will require to be made half an inch larger per foot every way, a second measure or rule being required. The real shrinkage is only three-sixteenths, but the other sixteenth is allowed for finishing.

Petterns exactly rectangular do not draw well from the sand; hence all patterns should be made with a taper of at least one-eighth of an inch to every foot.

Sharp internal angles should be avoided, as they leave an arris on the sand, which requires mending.

It is often necessary, in model-making, to take impressions and easts from existing works which

cannot be dismantled or out up. For this purpose, the impression is usually taken in gutta percha, which is to a certain extent flexible when cold. The best mode of softening the gutta porcha is by applying the heat from the front of a fire. It is sometimes more convenient to warm it in hot water, and, as soon as the impression is taken, place it in coldwater until cold; gutta percha always contracts unless put into cold water. Stucco is also much employed; or, better, a composition of

1 part yellow wax, 4 parts black rosin.

When much relief or coreing is required, a flexible mould can be made of

12 parts glue, 3 parts treacle,

the treacle being applied after the glue is melted, in the usual way.

Mr. Overman of Philadelphia enumerates sulphur, bread-crumbs, glass, alum, saltpetre, &c., as materials for taking impressions and casts.

Wood patterns should be varnished or painted, so as not to absorb moisture. All patterns, if brushed with black lead, like a grate, will leave the sand more freely, and save considerable mending.

A great saving is often effected in making pat terns of mouldings or bends by sweeping them up in stucco. The process is almost exactly the same as that described under "Loam-moulding." It is not essential to have all patterns exactly of the thickness of the casting wanted, as it is often cheaper to take a thickness off the pattern in manner afterwards explained.

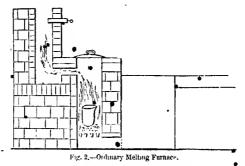
MOULDING.

THE APPARATUS AND MATERIALS.

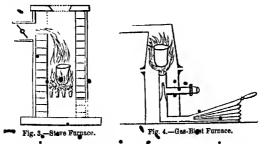
BRASSFOUNDERS' furnaces are mostly sunk under the floor level; the pit for the removal of the ash is covered by hinged iron gratings. The covers for the furnace-top are constructed of cast iron, and usually dome-shaped, though not necessarily; a damper is inserted in the flue to regulate the draft. The internal building of the furnace is of fire-brick, grotted with fire-clay.

In large works, it is common to have an air-furnace, instead of the ordinary one (Fig. 2). The difference exists in the admission of a blast under the furnace bars, and stopping up the ordinary opening at the ash-pit. The blast is obtained from a patent fun, driven by the engine.

Throughout the country there are almost an endless quantity of small brass-foundries, where the regular furnace cannot be applied. The stovefurnace (Fig. 3), or a modification of it, is generally



adopted. The third furnace (Fig. 4) is only intended for small work; it is extremely clean, and



can be used on a bench; the kneed-pipe over the crucible is made of fire-clay. The heat from this furnace is most intense.

In passing, it may be well to explain that fireclay is a compound of silica, alumina, and water, mixed to a greater or less extent with foreign substances. The bricks are made from pounded clay, in other respects like ordinary bricks. The foreign matters are chiefly oxide of iron, lime, magnesia, black lead, and bitumen. These contaminations impair the value of the clay, and render it less fit for standing fire. Pure clay is white, opaque, and unctuous.

Next in importance to the furnaces are the crucibles; these should not corrode, should not allow liquids or gases to pass through them, and should resist every sudden change of temperature.

The common crucibles are made from

1 part fire-clay, 2 parts black lead.

The Berlin crucibles consist of

8 parts fire-clay,
4 parts black lead,
5 parts powdored coke,
3 parts old ground crucibles.

The Stourbridge crucibles are composed of

4 parts fire-clay, 2 parts burned-clay cement, 1 part ground coke, 1 part ground pipe-clay.

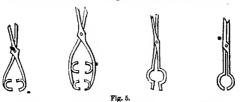
Mr. Austey's patent crucibles contain

2 parts fire-clay, 1 part ground gas-coke. The crucihles in general use are known as blue pots; they consist chiefly of fire-clay and black lead; they are manufactured either as pottery-ware, on a wheel, or by mould and mandrel. The materials should be free from lime, and wrought as compacted as possible, and slowly dried in a kiln.

When fire-clay cannot be had, common clay, steeped in hot hydroehloric acid, and well washed with hot water, and dried may be substituted.

CRUCIBLE TONGS.

Fig. 5 exhibits the forms of tongs best suited for furnace-work. The great object is to hold the



crucible fast. These tongs should be strong, and of various sizes.

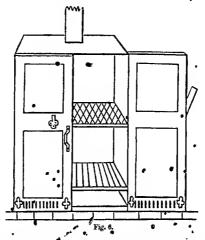
FURL.

Hard coke is generally employed for brassfounders' furnaces and stoves. Coke should leave only a small per-centage of ash, and should practically convert six to eight pounds of water into steam, for every one

pound or coke consumed. Much larger quantities are commonly published, but they relate to theoretical quantities, making no allowance for the lost heat which passes up the chimney. Gas-coke is also very much employed; it has the advantage of cheapness.

DRYING-STOFE.

Fig. 6 exhibits a drying-stove, half open; the fire is placed on the lower grating: the air is admitted



through openings at the foot of the doors, or from under the doors when made a little shorter than the size; the mould boxes and cores are placed on the upper grating, and the draft conducted to the flue on the top of the stove. The doors are made of iron, the other three sides of stone or brick. The size will depend on the extent of work. Drying-stoves are beneficial, on account of so much damp sand and loam being used by the moulders; their use produces sounder and sharper castings, as will be explained under "Sands."

A much cleaner stove is obtainable by making a steam-tight jacket for the stove, and so heating it with the exhaust steam from the engine. This saves space and all the fuel for this stove, as well as the time wasted in attending to it. In this case the stove must be made wholly of iron.

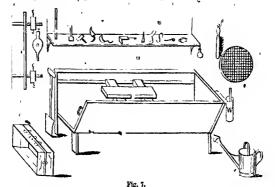
For small corcs it is exceedingly convenient to have an ordinary range-oven, mounted with a steamjacket or case in the same way, and supplied with steam also from the exhaust. Care must be taken, however, to let tho steam have an outlet.

MOULDING-TUB AND TOOLS.

The construction, nature, and application of the respective parts of the apparatus given in Fig. 7 will be apparent at a glance. The moulding-tub requires to be made very strong; it is constructed of wood, and provided with sliding bars, and a quantity of one-inch boards, with cross ends, the size of the moulding-boxes. The moulding-boxes are simply

iron.

rectangular rims of irot, with snugs and pins exactly fitted, so that when the one half is placed upon the other there will be no possibility of shifting a hair's-breadth. The cramps are made of wood, sufficiently long to clasp the moulding-boxes lengthwise



When the boxes are large, several bars are cast across them. When the boxes are subject to much rough work, the bars are best made of malleable iron, cast in; where lightness is desirable in large boxes, they should be entirely made of malleable

SANDE AND FACING MATERIALS.

Sand.—Moulding may be executed in many substances, but none so conveniently or so perfectly as sand, containing a little load or clay. The greater the quantity of pure sand or silex, the more readily will the gases generated at pouring escape, the less risk of blown-holes, and the greater chance of a good casting. The greater the quantity of loam or clay, the more perfect will be the impression, but the greater risk of spoiled castings. These remarks apply only to green-sand casting, as the difficulty is altogether removed by using the drying-stove.

Sands for moulding purposes, though varying in grain, have the composition of about

94 parts silex,
4 parts clay,
2 parts oxide of iron and impunities.
100

Lime, magnesia, and metallic oxides are detrimental substances to the moulder, and sands containing them in any larger proportions than above should be avoided. They do not stand the heat; they melt in the presence of the poured metal; they boil, unite with and blister the surface of the casting; they generate gases, cause hosts of air-holes, and destroy more than the sand is worth.

Moulding sand is obtained from the beds of large rivers, in the vicinity of granite or date mountains; in the rivers of coal districts, if the iron is not too abundant; but never in mica, lime, or volcanic districts.

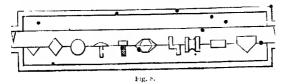
Core Sand.—This send, though gritty and porous, must be adhesive, fresh, and pure. Rock sand, that is, the accumulation of washed sand, from a newly broken primitive or folspar rock, receives the preference; where this is not to be had, pounded blastfurnace cinder, tempored with a little clay, may be used; fulling both, free sand, mixed with clay or barm, may be employed.

^o Parting Sand.—This may be either red brickdust, fresh free sand, sea or river fine sand, or blast-cinder powder. It must be a substance which does not retain damp; preference being given in the order above indicated.

Facing the Sand.—When hot metal comes in contact with fresh sand, tho sand partially melts, and a rough casting is the result. To obviate this, fine charcoal is dusted upon the mould, or the mould is smoked with cork shavings or pitch torches, by which a very fine doposit of carbon is obtained, and a smooth skin secured to the casting. Carbon does not adhere well to old sand; when it is used, it is necessary, first, to dust the mould with pease-meal, and then add the carbon. Avoid excess of both, otherwise the casting rill come out faint, instead of sharp, the carbon collecting in the holiows and preventing the metal running up.

MANIPULATION.

Ordinary plain work is arranged according to circumstances in the flask. Fig. 2 shows a general arrangement. When only one or two castings are



required from a pattern, the pattern is "rapped," into the flask, that is, the top part being rammed up, a portion of the sand is removed, and the pattern inserted, or "rapped in." After sprinkling on some parting sand, the drag is placed on, and facing sand sieved in, after which the ordinary sand is rammed in till the flask is full; then the flasks, top and drag, are turned over so that the drag is lowest, when the top part is taken off and emptied, the face of the drag cleaned again, and dusted with parting sand. After this, the top part is put on, and filled and rammed with facing and ordinary sand, as was The top part is egain removed, and done above. the patterns withdrawn. In the process of parting the box and withdrawing the patterns it often occurs that part of the sand as torn away, which in consequence requires to be mended. The greater portion of the moulder's time is taken up by this process of mending. The moulds being mended, finished, and provision made for the escape of gases and air, as well as for the admission of the metal or alloy, by gates and runners, the top and drag are put together, closed, and cramped. The mould is then immediately placed on the casting-shop floor, and poured along with other flasks. This mould, not having been dried, is called a "green sand" mould. If, however, the castings are required to be of a fine external appearance, the mould, before being closed, would have been placed in the drying-store, and smoked.

When a large quantity of any article is required, the patterns are planted on a plate, usually iron, and the flasks are rammed up on the plate, the whole boxful of patterns being lifted out of the sand at one and the same time. There is great economy in this method. For that very reason it is disliked by some workmen, who, being on day-wages, often endeavour to sat it aside, whenever it is possible, and commonly by producing a large amount of badly formed castings when plate-moulding.

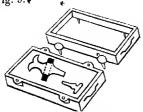
It is to be repretted that so much ignorance exists among workmen on the very first principles of political economy, netwithstanding all that has been done to convince them that economy in labour

produces a larger amount of work to individua.

There is now working its way gradually through out the country a method of removing the plate on which the patterns are placed from the flask, after the flask as been rammed up; and, from the almost mathematical accuracy of the lift, muchof the mending before referred to is avoided, and ten times the amount of work performed by one man. In fact, the attention of manufacturers at the present moment is more than ever directed to labour-saving machinery, and the time is fast approaching when the largest amount of eastings will he moulded by machinery. Such a resultawill benefit the workmen as much as the employers, unless the present workmen refuse to work such machinery, in which case they will have to follow the example of the hand-loom weavers, which would be anything but comfortable to them. It is folly to expect the art of moulding to stand still, while all the world around is on the march of progress, and daily showing how little we knew before, and how much is to he learned, in the present and the luture, before we arrive at anything like perfection.

CORES.

When a hole or opening is required to be left in a casting, a piece of baked sand, exactly the size of the hole or opening wanted, is inserted in the mould, so as to occupy the exact position of the hole or opening, and prevent the metal or alloy from running into such space. In order to keep the core in its exact place, it is made a little longer than necessary, so as to have a bearing at each end The pattern has in consequence prints upon it, so as to leave an impression in the sand to receive this additional length. These prints are represented black in Fig. 9.



Fyr. 9 - Box with Core Casting.

Many cores, however, have only one bearing, as



Fig. 10.-False Cores.

False Cores (Fig. 10), which are only inserted a short way into the mould, as, for example, in the fluting of a column shaft. The same thing occurs in easting some leaves (Fig. 11), or similar work.

In column capitals, richly ornamented, four, six, or eight cores are usually employed, as the case may require. Thus, from the simplest of core cast-



ings to the highest and most complicated, the same principle pervades, and the same plans are adopted, though often requiring considerable skill, practice, and neat manipulation.

Cores are usually made in core-boxes (Fig. 12).



Fig. 12,-Core Boxes.

The first of the above figures (1) represents snaing bars on a wooden board for making square cores; the second (b) a tin mould for expered cores; and the third (c), a metal box for cylindrical cores. Cores,

however, are not confined to these forms, although these are the most frequent; they consist of every form, and shape, regular and irregular, plain and ornamental, of one and of several parts. It is often costly to construct core-boxes; but, as a general rule, a costly core-box can be dispensed with, by moulding the pattern in sand, and casting it solid from a composition of

1 part plaster of paris,
2 parts brickdust,
Water, q s.

and scraping down to the size required to form the core.

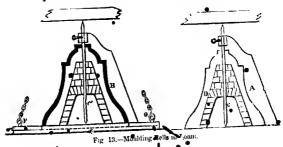
It is necessary that all cores should be vented, that is to say, have a hole through them, which is lone in the process of making, by inserting a wire, and withdrawing it immediately before opening the core-box to take out the core. Without such vents the easting is sure to be bad, the gases having no way of escape. When the cores are large, core-rone are required to support the sand core. It is sustomary to support large and long cores in the centre by brass nails or chaplets. It is better, however, to avoid such, and balance the core by a heavy and on the core bar a possible.

To give consistency of the sand used in making orcs, about one-half should be pure rock sand, . Thich contains a certain proportion of clay, but not

generally enough; hence the addition of clay-water or British gum is necessary so give the sand the proper amount of cohesiveness.

The cores must be thoroughly dried in a stove, the temperature being between 300° and 400° Fahr. After the cores are dry, they are black-washed, or coated with a mixture of ground charcoal and water, a little clay or size being added; they are returned to the stove to have this wash dried, after which they are ready for the mould. The black wash causes the core to leave the easting readily, and renders the surface of the casting next the core smooth and free from defects.

In green-sand moulds it is better not to insert the cores till within a short time before pouring, so as to prevent their absorbing moisture.



Large and heavy castings such as large church bells, are moulded in loam.

In Fig. 13, A and B are templets; A is made to the inside shape of the bell, B to the outside. irono lintel is thrown across at c, supported by the under and supporting the upper brickwork. eore is left for a fire to dry the building and the coating of loam D, which is placed over the building and formed by A, which revolves round with the spindle. This is faced; a coating of fresh sand, indicated by the thick black line, and swept by B, is then applied. This is also faced; B is withdrawn, and upon an iron ring, F G, a large quantity of loam is erected. When dry, the upper loam is raised by a crane; the sand picked out; the snugs, inscription, &c., which have been separately moulded in wax or clay, are inscrted; the whole dried and east.

Statuary. In works of Fine Art, such as statuary, a rough core is constructed of fron ribs, wire gauze, and stucco; a layer of wax, containing a little white pitch and tallow, is laid on the structure and modelled. The foregoing composition of brickdust and plaster of paris is laid on in quantity, the wax melted out, and the metal poured. But this is more within the department of the artist than of the brassfounder.

Ordnance.—Bross ordnance are east in a manner peculiar to themselved. A wood spindle is wound with soft rope, a shalle smaller than the interior

diameter of the gun; learn is applied to the rope till the proper thickness of the metal is acquired; the whole is turned to the shape or pattern of a drawing; the spindle and rope are then withdrawn; the learn dried and faced; another and thicker layer of learn is applied and dried; the first picked out; the air escape holes, which are required for every mould, being made, the gun is east, turned, bored, and tested.

Thickness or Reverse Moulding.—When a thin easting is required from a thick pattern, the upper half of the mould is moulded from the opposite impression, and a thin sheet of clay inserted between the two half boxes, as shown by the dotted lines in Fig. 14.

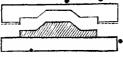


Fig. 14.-Thickness or Reverse Moulding.

 Moulding Screws.—The pattern is serewed into the sand. See Fig. 8.

Odd Sides.—This term is given to the practice of taking off two impressions from the one setting of patterns, so that when the patterns are taken out, they can be placed in this third or odd side without re-arrangement.

Flowers, Insects, &c.—It is sometimes required to copy nature from natural objects, such as a butterfly

a flower, a bird, in short, anything which can be consumed by fire. The object is suspended in a box, and surrounded with a compound of brickdust and plaster of paris—two to one in water. The mould is placed in a furnace to consume the pattern, which being done, the metal is poured.

Mixing and Pouring Metals.—This is yet an open subject. The method commonly adopted for brass is to melt the least volatile metal first, and to plunge the more volatile under the liquid surface with the tongs, in small lumps and hot, in preference to large pieces, which are apt to thicken the copper and cause it to set. We say hot, for the least moisture adhering to cold metal would create danger from being driven off in all directions. We say under the surface, so as to prevent loss from



Fig. 15 .- Method of Pouring Brass.

its volatile nature. To prevent such loss, charcoal and broken glass have been employed in layers above the metals.

If the metal or allow be too hot, the casting will

be discoloured or "sand-burned." The best castings are produced when the metal is at such a heat as will cool quickly. The heavy castings take longer to cool, and, consequently, should be poured last. Care must be taken to skim the metal. Fig. 15 shows the method of pouring brass. Small work is poured vertically, large work horizontally.

ALLOYING,

AND THE PROPERTIES OF THE METALS CONSTITUTING THE ALLOYS.

THE metals form part of the elements of nature, are decompounded bodies, and distinguished from the other elements by their lustre, &c.

• The Lustre is so characteristic as to have formed the common expression "metallic lustre."

Weight is also a rough distinguishing characteristic.

Fusibility is a property common to all metals. Before some metals are cendered fluid by heat, they become pasty; such is an interaction of malleability. The following Table gives the degrees (Fahr.) of heat at which metals fuse:—

•		•			
Tin				442°	
Bismuth	1			4979	
Lead	•			612°	
Zinc .	,			773°	
Antimony	۰	ŧ		8100	
Silver				1,873°	
Copper .				1,996°	
*Gold	1			0160	
Lon (Cast)	١.			2,786°	
Nickef .			١.	2,800° (about)	
_Manganese	٠.			3,000° (about)	

* Matteability, or the preperty of being beat out into thin plates without cracking or breaking, is common to several metals. The order of relicability is as follows, beginning at the most malkable:—

Sil♥er,	Zine,
Copper,	lron,
Tin,	Nickel.
Lead,	

Ductility is also a property found in some metals. It is allied to mallcability, and often confounded with it. It is the property of being drawn into wire. The following is the order in which the metals are ductile:—

Iron,	Tin,
Copper,	Lead,
Silver,	Nickel
Zine,	

Tenacity, or the resistance to being pulled asunder by the force of tension, varies exceedingly in metals.

The order of tenacity, beginning with the most tenacious, is as follows:—

Iron .					549
Copper	·	•	,		302 137
Silver .		,		Ţ	137
Zinc.		•			109
Tin.		•			34
Lead .			٠		27

Brittleness, resulting from hardness, as a property also met with; and where the brittleness is not extreme, hardness is in favour where subjected to the force of compression.

All metals are conductors of heat and electricity, and on becoming liquid evolve heat.

As a general rule, the substances (elemonts) of nature unite together in fixed and definite atomic proportions, thereby forming new compounds. Metals unite with non-metallic bodies, and obey the same general law; but metals, when united with metals, appear to form an exception, though much doubt exists on the subject. They seem to mix in any proportion, and are thereby modified; possessing thereafter properties which fit them for many purposes in commerce and art. These compounds, being considered at present non-admical bodies, are classed together under the Franch term of alloys.

The best known and most serviceable of all the alloys are those composed of copper and zinc, to which have been given the term brass. For most

purposes it is better than copper, being less liable to discolour, harder, closel in grain, more workable, and fusible at a lower degree of heat. It is infinitely better than zinc, being harder, more durable, closer grained, less tarnishable, less brittle, and of better colour.

This alloy is formed by fusing together the two metals, copper and zinc, in a crucible. The copper, requiring 1926° of heat to melt, is fused first, and the zinc, which only requires 773°, is afterwards introduced. If greater heat is used, the metals will variouse and cause loss. The zinc is introduced immediately before pouring; if allowed to remain long in the furnace, much of it will pass up the chimney. In adding the zinc in mass, care must be taken to have it warm and perfectly free from moisture, to prevent danger.

When the alloy is east in heavy blocks, it is found that the heavy metal subsides in setting, that a greater proportion of copper is set in the under half of the easting, and thus the composition is reader below, and whiter above, to prevent which some parties have recommended that the casting be fed; but it is not easy to see how feeding will affect the surface of a block, which surface is set before the interior, the interior alone being capable of being fed. The cetting in accordance with specific gravity occurs with other alloys. The greater the difference between the specific gravities, the

greater is the difference between the composition of the upper and lower portions of the casting.

There are two properties which are of great value to castings, and which are easily produced in brass. The first is sharpness, and is obtainable by the addition of a little lead (from one quarter to two per cent.); the second is hardness - bushes, for example, requiring it, - and it is produced by a slight addition of tin (from point nothing to point eight per cent.; thus forming ternary alloys.

The following table of brasses presents at a glance the proportions of the composition, the colour the alloy presents, and the name under which the couppound is known:—

Copper Description. Wire. Fumes. Gold The gold wire of Lyons. 1 lb. l oz. Red The jowellers' gilding alloy. 2 The platin. ,, •; ,, Rich sheet-brass. Deep yellow Pinchheck, Bath, similar. ,, 5 Dutch alloy. ,, Bristol sheet. б Bright yellow 7 Good brass wire. ,, 8 Good ordinary brass. ,, ,, 9 Full yellow Muntz's extreme. ,, ,, 10 Sheathing. ,, Spelte solder for capper or iron. Dipping-brass. Spears solder for brass. Watchmallers' brass, crystalling. 12 Pale yellow

BRASSES.—Proportions and Results.

Colone.

Zino

,, 24 1 lb.

2 ,,

8

Whitish

1

1

The next most serviceable class of alloys is that

Lap-r loy.

composed of copper and tin, to which the terms bell-metal and bronze are given. Of themselves, these metals are too soft and flexible for most purposes; when united by fusion, the compound is very hard, brittle, and sonorous.

Bronze is of great antiquity. It has been used for weapons, guns, tools, gongs, and bells for time unknown. Tin improves eastings of copper. A little zinc, in addition, produces better results. A little brass adds brilliancy to the colour. Lead dulls and destroys it. It is necessary to heat the tin bofore adding to the copper, as it is apt when cold to produce a lump at the bottom of the crucible.

The particulars of the different bronzes, are set forth in the following table:—

' SIMPLE BRONZES .- PROPORTIONS AND RESULTS.

Copper.	Tin.	Colour.	, Description.
1 lb. 1	0·5 oz. 1· ", 1·3 ", 1·5 ", 2· 3 ", 2·5 ", 3· 6· 4 5 ", 7· ", 2· ", 32· ", 32· ",	Reddish yellow "" "Yellow red "" Bluish red Ash grey Dark grey Wait sh Whiter still	Ancient nails. Soft gun bronze. For mathematical instrumentar For toothed wheels. Ordnance: Hard weapon and tool bronze. , machinory-bearing bronze. Soft, for musical bells. , gongs. , house-bells. , lazger bells. , the largest bells. Anciont mirrors. Speculum bronze. Pewterers' temper.

The Japanese, who are great bronze-workers, add lead, zinc, and iron to their bell-metal, with wonderful

effect. Their name for these compounds is kara kane.

The following are the proportions they use:—

KARA KANE .- (BELL METAL.)

Copper.	Tın.	Zine, .	Lead.	· Iron.	Quality.
• 60 60 60	15 18	9 3 6	* : 8 12	3 •	First. Second. Third.

For small bells they employ the first quality, and for large bells the third quality.

There is another kind of bronze, known as Fontai emoreau's Bronze, in which zine predominates. It is said to answer well for chill moulding, that is, for pouring in metal moulds, by which method is rendered very homogeneous. The crystalline nature of the zine is entirely changed by the addition of a small proportion of copper, iron, &c. • The alloy is hard, close-grained, and resembles steel. Moreover, it is more fileable than either zine or copper. The following table presents the proportions in use:—

FORTAINEMOREAU'S BRONZES

Zinc.	Copper.	Cast iron.	Lend.
90 91 92 92	8 8 8	100	1 0 0
97 97 991 991	2½ 3 0 1	0	0 0

The union of copper with lead is usually termed "pot metal." Lead has the tendency to separate from copper, and cannot be employed in larger proportion than 8 oz. to 1 lb. of copper. Arsenic aids its fusibility. Tin, in small proportion, improves the alloy. The following are the ordinary tempounds:—

Lead.	Соррет.	Description.
or. 2 4 6 7	. lts. 1 1 1 1	Red ductile alloy. do. Dry pot metal, or cock alloy. do. but shorter. Wot pot metal.

rne following table presents some additional compounds for special work:—

Iron.	Brass.	Zme.	Tin.	Lead.	Copper.	Description,
	1		0.5	ı	•1	Mortar alloy.
		1	1.6	16	1 {	Socket alloy, Steven- son's.
۱	1	0.5	1.5		1 1	Pump metal.
		5	2 5		1	Suspending metal.
	2		1.5		1	Wheel work.
•	1.5	٠٩	2.3		1 1	Turning work.
0.1		0 %			1	Keir work, forgeable.
0.02		0.6			1 {	Aich metal, resists sea-water.
00.3		0.2	0.02		1 {	Sterro metal, for pumps.

Of the above compounds the keir metal is capable of being made into any shape by the hammer, and is fit for propeller blades, sheathing, and bolts.

The aich metal is said to be stronger than copper. Sterro metal is said to stand 75,000 lbs. to the square inch.

In using iron filings employ a little corrosive sublimate for fixing it.

Of all the alloys, perhaps no class has occupied more attention than the white alloys. First, as a substitute for silver, and secondly, as a source of solder, these compounds have been very successful, and have added very much to the industry of our country. The following table presents the most important:—

Silver.	Nickel.	Brass.	Zinc.	Tın.	Lead.	Copper.	чпіітопу.	Bısmuğı	Description.
	15	1b 1 16 2 1 0.5 0.4 0.15	dwts 16 13 lbs. 2 	15 0 6 1 · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	ib32	1b 1 1 1 0.15 1 165	 1 3% 	1b	Nuckel, or German silver. White copper of China. Queen's metal. Birtannia metal. White button metal. Solder for bell metal. Do. brass. Do. tin. Vo. salver. Do. do. Do. do. Do. Mokume. French com. M. Pingor's coin alloy.
800 996 800 835 100			200 50 100 100	4	::	50 100 93 30 to 50	•	 1.	Do. Co. Do. do. Co. Gm his ici

The substituting of zinc for copper in silver allow

gives greater fusibility to the alloy. Some small Swiss coins contain zing in their composition.

Another very interesting alloy has lately come to us from Japan, called shahdo. It is composed of copper, with from one to ten per cent. of gold. On being polished it is boiled in a bronze, which we shall describe among the artificial bronzes, presenting a bluish-black colour of great beauty.

There is another interesting alloy being tried in America, but which little concerns the brassfounder being the introduction of a richer metal with iron, which is said to render cart iron doubly strong.

The employment of arsenic into alloys requires the use of a good flux to unite it well with the other metals; that flux is commonly nitre, or one part nitre and two of tartar. The alloys made with arsenic are chiefly for speculums—that is, telescope mirrors.

TABLE OF SPECULUM ALLOYS.

In using arsenic, it must be introduced into the . crucible when the mixture is in a melting state

Being in a coarsely-pounded state, it is tied up into a paper bag, and let into the crucible by a pair of tongs. The whole mixture requires to be stirred with a birch rod till vapours cease to rise. Avoid breathing or inhaling while the vapours appear; as soon as they are over the alloy is ready for pouring. Arsenic renders alloys white and hard.

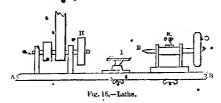
The alloys containing arsenic should be taken out of the flask as soon as properly set, and placed in hot ashes, and in a proper place for protracted annealing.

It is said that speculums are sometimes made from piucina. It is also or record that platina, plus iron, forms the composition of some Spanish gunbarrels, which never rust, and that iron and copper may be coated with the composition.

EATHE WORK.

The Lathe.—Lathes are almost endless in variety; yet one principle pervades all ordinary lathes, whether propelled by foot or steam. For brassfounders' purposes, the common ordinary lathe, of a somewhat light make, will be found most useful. The following woodcut represents, typically, an ordinary

lathe, the cross or slide bar AB, generally fixed to an iron stand, is made of iron, with its top surface planed. On this bar are fixed the heads and rest. It is of the utilist importance that CD, EF be



in one and the same horizontal line. The chuck n is made to unscrew, so as to allow different sizes and forms of chucks to be used on the same lathe. The churk-head is always furnished with a loose and fixed pulley, for the shifting of the belt. In the better class of lathes a cone takes the place of the loose and fixed pulleys; in which case a corresponding cone is necessary on the driving or counter shaft. By this means different speeds are attainable, to suit different classes of work. YIK represent the three principal parts of a lathe, viz., the chuck-head, tho rest, and the popit-head.

Chacks.—These are serewed to the spindle c n, and are either of iron, lead, or wood. For most purposes, iron chacks are preferred; they are perfectly round, and contain a number of holes for bolts and screws. Chucks are made with sliding plates,

which yield to the tool, for turning ovals and eccentrics. Some of these are very elaborate pieces of workmanship, and produce work of endress beauty. When work cannot be fixed to the chuck by scrows, wedges, or spikes, it can be fastened by a cement composed of—

8 parts rosin, 1 part yellow wax, Brickdust, q. s.

Rests. — These consists of two parts; viz., the socket, with a ground or planed sole for the slide-bar; and the T, to revolve and fix at any angle required. These Ts are constructed of various forms, to meet the various requirements, as shown below.

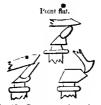


Fig. 17.—Point up. Point down.

For many purposes light slide-rests are superior to the ordinary hand-rest figured above; and as it is generally made self-acting, he work can often be left alone, to execute itself.

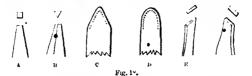
The principle of the slide-rest consists in the tool being carried along the work by a screw, which screw can be worked by the motion of the

lathe, and so rendered self-acting. By another screw, the tool is made to approach the work or recede from it at pleasure. Small slide-rests are found most convenient for fixed-shaped tools.

Popit or Puppit-head.—These require to be well, made, having nicely litted spindles, heavy flywheels, and screws for fixing at top. The soles require to be ground or planed, and have provision—as also the rests—for fixing fast to the slide-bars, such as a screw with large scroll nut.

LATHE TURNING GOOLS-FOR BRACS.

Narrow Tools.—These are used for breaking out, that is, in the first process. A is sometimes made

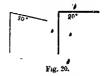


from an old square file, and B from a triangular file; c is a pointed tool, a little rounded; D is a gouge breaker; E and F are handed tools.



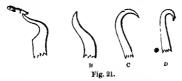
Broad Tools. These are used for finishing.

Where the double line is shown, Fig. 19, the tool



is ground to an angle of 80°; where the single line is drawn, the tool remains at 90°. See Fig. 20.

Springing, Planing, and Hollowing Too's.—The springing tool, A, acts as a scraper, to remove all



roughness; and, from the spring which it possesses, the form or shape of the work remains untouched; B is a planing tool for "thin cuts," and leaves the work beautifully smooth; c and D are hook tools, for hollow work.

General Remarks on Lathe Work.—It will be observed that brassfounders' turning tools are of very simple forms, confined generally to round or flat, right or left handed side tools and hooks—all of which resemble very closely the tools for turning hard wood, excepting that the angle is different. The angles we have given above are the finished.

angles, that is, when sharpened; they are generally ground to the angles of 60° to 70°.

Should the work, on being chucked, not be perfectly concentric, a narrow tool must be employed to rough it out before resorting to the broad finishing tools; but where a large number of articles of the same kind are to be turned, it can commonly be arranged to have them well formed, clean east, and truly chucked, in order to avoid waste of time roughing out, and so allow the man to proceed at once with a fixed tool to finish the work.

Rings or markings are very apt to appear on the work when bread flat tools are laid close down on the tool's whole surface. Thin goods vibrate and sound like a bell under the circumstance.

To give the tool proper rotation, the tool is somewhat held in the operator's hand, and never allowed to be at rest, the fingers being kept over the rest and under the tool. The tool should not be allowed to incline much, in case of turning the work out into furrows.

Turning about the rest in its socket is, as much as possible, to be avoided. It is commonly retained in a parallel position to the mandril, and face or hollow work turned from an arm-rest running nearly at right angles to the mandril.

Fraishing tools are sometimes burnished at the edges, so as to act as burnishers.

In forming the tools for the slide-lest, the roughing-out tools require to be stightly rounded at the advance corner; those intended for finishing are quite sharp. To save the springing of the tool, it should be grasped as near the cutting end as possible.

Turning Tools for other Mctals.—Zinc requires the same tools as brass; copper and bronze require the tools used for iron; lead, tin, pewter, and the other soft metals, require the tools employed for soft wood.

Lathe-Boring, Widening, and Countersinking.—
These are accomplished by the ordinary drills, wideners, and counter-sinks, introduced into a tack on the chuck. The popit-head, with its boring flange, is moved along by its screw with great exactness. Pulleys and wheels are generally chucked, and a stationary drill thrust through them by the popit-head. Branches for tapered work are usually made five sided—the angles requiring to be more obtuse than in turning tools, and the velocity of the lathe less in boving than in turning.

All brass-work is wrought dry.

Screen.—There is great diversity in the manner of making screws. Combs are to a greater or less extent in common use. The work is chucked; and, by the aid of an arm-rest, the comb is moved to

and fro, so as to form the thread. The general form of such combs is there shown.



Fig. 22.—Screw Combs.

Traversing mandrils are also in use for making screws. In this case the work moves, and the too is fixed. Screws are also formed by stocks and dies, and with the screw-plate; but for many purposes the ordinary screwing machines and screw-cutting lathes are found of great service. Screws and spirals may, however, he constructed by an ordinary lather when a slide-rest, &c., cannot be commanded. The plan is to rule a piece of paper, the pitch of the

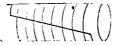


Fig. 23.-Mode of Cutting Screws.

screw or spiral required, and paste it to the rod, as in Fig. 23, chisel the line so formed, and the groove thus formed will guide the turning tool.

The following table gives the number of threads to the inch which is now generally employed in relation to the diameter, and known as Mr. Whitworth's table:—

STANDARD TABLES.

20 18	16 a	1 d 1 d	12	118	10	9	1 8	inch diameter. tlireads per inch.
1 1 1 7	1 1 6	13 6	1 5 5	$\frac{13}{5}$	1 % 4 1 4 2	2 41		iach diameter. threads per inch.
21 2 1 1	$\frac{1}{3}$	3°	31 31	3 } 3 }	53 3	3		inch diameter. threads per inch.

For finer threads, the following may be adopted in tend of Mr. Whitworth's:—

-			1 .		 		
36	28	20 13 20 20	1 ⁷ d 18	16	 inch d threac	liameter Is per in	. • neh.

Screws are sometimes cast, and nuts very fre quently cast upon screws.

FILING.

The file is a tool of very great antiquity. It is ent, by hand or machinery, by percussion, and afterwards tempered. The moist oil, which is on all new files, is apt to collect the filings, and should have sprinkled over it powdered chalk, before using.

The sorts adapted to brass-foundry work are float,

bastard, and smooth files: they are round, helf round, square, flat, hend, equalling and rufflers, and vary from 4 to 14 inches. The handles and mountings are sometimes bent, and formed to answer the respective work which they are intended to porform.

Files are only intended to work by advanced strokes, the pressure should be relaxed in withdrawing the strokes; they should not be used sidewards.

The proper position or height at which the work can be best wrought depends upon its size. Small work should be vice-height; mid-sized work should be elbow-height; large work should be from 2 to 3 inches under elbow-height.

Of late years there has been introduced a filing machine for flat surfaces, very much after the motion of a nibbling machine, by which the work is performed with great rapidity. Where a great deal of flat work is done, such a machine is a valuable instrument. The files used for these machines can either be the common file or a very broad file made for the purpose. For flat work, grinding can sometimes take the place of filing.

GRINDING.

The stones used for grinding are varieties of sandstones, commonly from the coal districts, and known as grit-stones. They are of a hard, close-grained, yet sharp nature; should be uniform in colour, and free from veins. According to these properties are the stones of different localities suited to the different kinds of grinding work.

These sines are commonly driven by steam power. The velocity, when great, is attended with danger from accidental fracture. It is usual to provide against this by bolting to the sides of the stone irruplates and rings, being careful to interpose felt, canvas, or other soft material between the bolts and the stone.

Wet grinding cuts quickly, and prevents the grain of the stone being choked with particles of metal.

Dry grinding cuts more slowly, leaves a smoother skin, but gives off a considerable amount of dust.

Small stones are moved with treadles or with crank-handle.

EMERY BELTS.

The emery belts are now doing much to take the place of the grindstone. Having an ordinary belt-pulloy on the driving shaft of the shop gearing, and another belt-pulley an a stand placed on the floor, the leather helt driving the latter is, before being placed on the pulleys, brushed over on the one side with glue, and, while the glue is yet hot, saturated with omery; the belt, being placed on the pulleys, is now ready for work. The grinder holds the work almost close to the pulley over which he sits. A second belt should always he in readiness to replace the one in use. These belts are found to be more speedy in the execution of work than grinding on stones. A very great amount of filing is saved by resorting to the emery For some purposes emery wheels take the belts. place of helts. These generally consist of a saturated endless band fixed round a rooden wheel, which wheel revolves on its axis in the lathe.

REVOLVING BOX.

A METHOD long used for dressing shot and polishing chains is for some purposes of the brassfounder a great acquisition. It consists essentially of a polygonal-sided iron drum, with an axle passing through the ends. In one of the sides is a sliding door, or grating, to admit or take out the eastings. are sometimes grated and sometimes solid. drum is in the to revolve on its axle by means of pulleys and belt from the ordinary shop gearing. castings are inserted as they come from the dressing shop, the door closed firmly, and the revolution allowed to go on, without attendance, for so many hours, according to the nature of the work. From the grated door, or ends, a considerable amount of brass dust drops into a receiver below, and is afterwards collected. When the work has been duly polished, it will be found that little more requires to be done to it. after coming from the revolving Jrum.

POLISHING.

Brass work is polished by hand lahour with emerycloth and oil. Flat surfaces must be rubbed straight; no earling marks whatever must be seen. Tubes are polished lengthwise. Circular work is polished from edge to centre. The use of cork or wood, in straps, cubes, or halls, for wrapping the emery-cloth upon, is of absolute importance. These straps, cubes, and balls are also employed with haize, for_finishing with rotten-stone or whiting, to give greater lustre. Straps, cuhes, and balls are also coated with buffleather for polishing with crocus and oil. Polish is not so much imparted by strength as by light and rapid friction. When the work is not to be lacquered, a minute quantity of oil is allowed to remain on the surface to prevent tarnishing, hut the amount must not he so great as to appear oily.

Brass work is also polished by revolving wheels covered with the best hide or old tanned leather. Leather tanned by the modern quick processes absorbs too much oil, and becomes too soft for good polishing leather. The harder the leather, the more plaze is imparted to the work. The leather is soaked in water for a few hours before being glued and tacked down to the wneel, in order that it may contract and become hard on drying. The tacks or nails must be with

drawn before use. Emery, crocus, &c., are used on these wheels exactly as on straps.

CHASING.

"This art of chasing," says Holtzapffel, "may be considered as the sequel to that of forging"—less the red heat; "but the various hammers and swage tools now dwindle into the most diminutive sizes, and are required of as many shapes as may nearly correspond with the minute detail of the most complex works. Some are grooved and checkered at the ends, and others are polished as carefully as the planishing hammers, that they may impart their own degree of porfection and finish to the work."

MATTING.

This is a process allied to chasing, and most frequently performed on metal patterns. It is simply the indenting of miniature hollows by means of a round-pointed chisel, and making the surface like a file—less the sharp points. Work of this nature requires no finishing on its surface; but on being cast is ready for dipping.

CLOUDING.

This process was first introduced by the elder Holtzapffel. It consists of mixing charcoal with water, and pouring on the face of polished brass so as to produce a great variety of circular marks. Slate peneil is employed to fill in portions of the cloud. The work when dry is ready for lacquering.

BURNISHING.

This process imparts the highest possible finish to brass or other work. The principle on which this process depends seems to be, that a hard and highly polished substance will, by friction and pressure, impart to another substance its own polish. The softer the substance acted upon, the duller will be the surface.

All work intended to be burnished should be highly finished before the burnisher is applied, or the workwill be londed with furrows.

Burnishers are made from hardened steel, and mostly haped like a flattened round file. Some are mounted like spokeshaves, with and without footstraps; others are bent at right angles: some are in the form of hooks; while a few, for long straight surfaces, are attached to a spring-pole from the ceiling.

Burnishers must be kept scrupulously polished between buff-leather sticks with crocus and oil. While in use, they require the application of a lubricous substance, such as sour beer or vinegar water

ANNEALING.

Work should be annealed before it is dipped. Work which has not been soldered is heated to redness over a charcoal fire, and allowed to cool very slowly, say for two hours. Work which has been hard soldered requires five or six hours' cooling process. Work which is soft soldered requires to be annealed before soldering

OLEANSING.

THE annealing process cleanses from oil and nearly all impurities, except when the work is afterwards handled. Should further cleansing be necessary, the work is boiled in potash water.

SOLDERING.

For the most part, this process is analogous to gluing. The edges of the metals are freed from their coating of oxygen, and united by a more fusible alloy, or metal; thus in

Soft Soldering.—The solder is an alloy of 2 parts of tin to 1 part of lead, fusible at 340°; or, for cheapness, the proportion is sometimes 3 to 2, fusible at 334°. This substance is applied with a hot copper bolt, or by blowpipe flame. Heat, however, would soon eause the edges of the metal again to oxidise; therefore, the edges are covered with a substance having a strong attraction for oxygen, and disposing the metal to unite to the solder at a low temperature. Such substances are called fluxes, and are chiefly

Borax, Resin, Sal-ammania Muriate of zinc,
Venice turpentine,
Tallow, or oil.

For brass or other similar alloy, resin, sel-ammoniac, and mariate of zinc are the proper fluxes. Should the work be heavy and thick, the seldering requires to be done over a charcoal fire in order to keep the tool heated within proper limits. The surfaces are as well to be tinned before soldering; in some cases simple dipping into a pot of melted solder effects the purpose, but the dip must be done instantly to be affective.

Zine, in some hands, is difficult to solder, from the fact that it is apt to withdraw the tin from the soldering bolt, and copper having a stronger affinity for each other than tin and copper. The proper flux is muriate of zinc, made by dissolving small bits of zinc or zinc drops in muriatic acid mixed with an equal bulk of water.

Tin and lead require resin or oil as the flux.

Pewter requires a flux of oil, and may, in addition to the soldering-bolt process, be soldered by a current of heated air.

Britannia metal should have muriate of zinc for a flux, and be soldered by the blowpipe.

Iron requires the surfaces tinued before being soldered.

Soldering per se.—This process is performed by first heating the articles to be soldered, and then pouring on very hot metal till a union is effected. Lead and brass are capable of being united in this way.

Table of Soldee Alloys, and the Heat at which They

Tin.	Lead.	Melts at
1 part	25 parts	558° Fahr
1 ,,	10 ,,	511 ,,
•1 "̈́	5 ,	511
l, "	3 ,,	482 ,.
1 " •	z " 1 part	441 " 370 "
2 parts	2 parts	334 ,,
2	l part	340 ,,
3 "	1 ,, ,	• 356 ,,
4. ,, 5 .,	1 ,	365 ,, 378 ,,
6 ,,	1 ,. 1 ,,	381 ,,

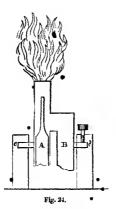
TABLE OF BISMUTH SOLDERS.

Tin.	Lead.	Bismuth.	Melts at
4 parts 3 ,, 2 ,, lmpart 2 parts 3 ,,	4 parts 3 ,, 2 ,, 1 part 1 ,, 5 parts	1 part 1 ,, 1 ,, 2 parts 3 ,,	320° Fahr. 310 " 229 " 254 " 236 " 202 "

Hard Soldering.—The alloy used in hard soldering is made from equal parts of copper and zinc; much of the zinc, however, is lost in the process, so that the real proportion is not equal parts. The alloy is again heated over a charcoal fine, and broken to granulations in an iron mortar. A different proportion is used for soldering copper and iron, viz., three-fourths zinc to one of copper. The commercial name is "spelter-solder."

The flux employed for spelter-solder is borax, which can either be used separately, or mixed, by rubbing, to a cream or mixed with the solder in a very little water.

When the work is cleaned, bound, fluxed, and speltered, the whole is subjected to a clear charcoal or coke fire; or what is now becoming far more general, convenient, cleanly, and manageable, abellows blowpipe.



The air passes from a bellows propelled by the foot through A, Fig. 24. The gas passes through B, and the flame can be directed to any point, on account of its being hinged at c c. The flame can be extended by using several stands, or by con-

structing several burners on one stand. The heat is much greater than from charcoal, can be regulated at pleasure, and kept at the same imperature for any given time.

In the process of hard soldering, the water should be driven off by gentle heat; the fusion of the flux soon follows; a glassy substance appears after the that, which, in its turn, is replaced by the alloy in red liquid form; the blue flame from the ignited zinc informs the operator that the solder now fuses, so that as soon as the work is flushed with solder it must be withdrawn, allowed to set, and cooled in water.

The common blowpipe is eminently useful to the brassfounder, and should be mastered early. The cheeks should form the bellows, the wind coming from the mouth, not directly from the lungs.

The composition of the hard solders has been given among alloys; the only other which requires notice is one suited for brazing steel. Its composition is

19 parts silver, 1 part copper, 1 part brass.

Before the metals are placed in the furnace, they should be covered over with charcoal dust.

PICKLII.G.

When the work is quite free from grease or other impurities, it is left for an hour or two in a glass or earthenware vessel containing

> 1 part nitric acid, 3 parts water.

and afterwards secured with a brush quite clear, susing fine sand and water. Some work requires to be scoured with pumice-stone and water.

In many cases, and as a matter of economy, the old nitrous acid, diluted with water, from the dipping process, is employed as the pickling liquid.

DIPPING.

When the work is pickled, it is immersed for an instant in pure nitrous acid; a bright surface is at once imparted to the metal or alloy.

On no account must iron or wood be employed in the process of dipping. If hippers are used, they must be of brass.

At times some confusion occurs by using the term "aquafortis" indiscriminately to nitric and nitrous acids

BRONZING.

This term takes its origin from the Italian, and was first employed by a school of artists to denote the brown paint upon, their statuary. The term has been extended so as to include the chemical stain or deposit applied to metals, for the purpose of imparting to them an antique appearance.

This process has been little developed till within the last few years. Most of the processes have been kept secret, and, consequently, a general dissatisfaction has existed for some time. The want of some standard process, which will produce rapid and certain results, with a choice of tints and colours, is much to be regretted. Should the author have, in an humble measure, mapped the course or pointed to the resources, he shall only have done a duty which was demanded by the times.

Nearly all that has been published on the subject of bronzing—save some variations, and a few receipts unworthy of the paper on which they are printed—is here collected from a variety of sources; but mainly from Messrs. Cooley, Holtzapffel, and Napier, of Britain, and Messrs. Larkin and Overman, of the United States. Most of the published bronzes require days or hours to accomplish their work.

- 1. Vinegar alone.
- 2. Aquifortis, dilute.
- 3. Sal-ani oniac, strong solution.
- 4. Livers of sulphur, solution.
- 5. Hydrosulphuret of ammonis.
- 6. Bichloride of platimum.
- 7. Sal-ammoniac + viuegar (+ salt).
- Sal-ammoniae half-pound; nitrous acid, one-third quart; water, two-thirds quart.
- Sal-ammoniac, one ounco; verdigris, two ounces; vinegar, one pint.
- Sal-animoniae, three ounces; salts of sorret, one ounce; vinegar, one quart.
- Sal-ammoniac, one part; c.cam of tartar, three parts; salt, six parts; nitrate of copper, eight parts; hot water, twelve parts.
- 12. Corrosive sublimate, one ounce; vinegar, one pint.
- Blacklead, or crocus + water; coat the metal, and burn over a fire.
- 14 Sulphuret of potassium and water, set in flat dishos, and the metal suspended over it. Effect, same as No. 5.
- 15. Muriatic acid, six pounds; oxide of iron, two pounds; yellow arsenic, one pound. N.B. Immerse; allow to stand moist till quite black, or the colour required; wash; dry in sawdust; and brush with blacklead like a grate.

Since the foregoing was written, the following has appeared in The Engineer of February 14, 1868:—•

"Although no alloy presents a more agreeable appearance to the eye than brass when it is in a high state of polish, yet the facility with which it tarnishes has rendered it necessary to colour or bronze it, especially in those instances where its use exposes it to the liability of being frequently handled. Many of our readers no doubt remember the

time when all scientific instruments, such as theodo. lites, levels, circumferenters, sextants, and numerous others of a smaller character used in no drawingoffice, were all manufactured bright, as it is termed. At present the best makers universally bronze instruments of the former class, and though they have not absolutely renounced the manufacture in brass of those belonging to the latter, yet they invariably recommend, and justly too, those made of white The reason that it was not until comparatively recently that brass was coloured or lacquered is probably because it takes a layer of colour very badly, and without certain precautions when a coatirg is laid en, the least shock will suffice to cause to scale off. Some interesting details have lately been published respecting this very practical subject in a German contemporary, illustrating the methods employed in obtaining a colour of any required tint. An orange tint, inclining to gold, is produced by first polishing the brass, and then plunging it for a few deconds into a neutral solution of erystallised acetate of copper, care being taken that the solution is completely destitute of all free acid, and possesses a warm temperature. Dipped into a bath of copper, the resulting tint is a greyish green, while a boautiful violet is obtained by immersing it for a single instant in a solution of chloride of antimony, and rubbing it with a stick covered with cotton. The

temperature of the brass at the time the operation is in progress has a great influence upon the beauty and delicacy of the tint; in the last instance, it should be heated to a degree so as just to be telerable to the touch. A moire appearance, vastly superior to that usually seen, is produced by boiling the object in a solution of sulphate of copper. According to the proportions observed between the zinc and the copper in the composition of the alloy, so will . the time obtained vary. In many instances it requires the employment of a slight degree of friction, with a resinous or waxy varnish, to bring out the wavy appearance characteristic of moire, . which is also singularly enhanced by dropping a few iron nails into the bath. There are two methods of procuring a black lacquer upon the surface of brass. The one, which is that usually curployed for optical and scientific instruments, consists in first polishing the object with tripoli, then washing it with a mixture composed of one part of nitrato of tin and, two parts of chloride of gold, and after allowing this wash to remain for nearly a quarter of an hour, wiping it off with a linen cloth. An excess of acid increases the intensity of the tint. In the other method, copper turnings are dissolved in nitric acid until the acid is saturated: the objects are immersed in the solution, cleaned, and subsequently heated nioderately ever a charcoal

fire. This process must be repeated in order to produce a black colour, as the first trial only gives a deep green, and the finishing touch is to polish with olive oil. Much pains are taken abroad to give brass objects 'an English look,' for which purpose they are first heated to redness, and then dipped in a weak solution of sulphuric acid. Afterwards they are immersed in dilute nitric acid, thoroughly washed in water, and dried in sawdust. To effect a uniformity in the colour, they are plunged into a bath consisting of two parts of nitric acid and one part of rain-water, where they are suffered to remain for several minutes. Should the colour not be free from spots and patches, the operations must be repeated until the desired effect is produced."

The Japanese polish their brass, and boil it in a solution somposed of—

Sulphate of copper, Alum, and erdigris

The following tables exhibit-

THE AUTHOR'S BRONZING LIQUIDS OF 1861.

To be used for BRASS by simple immersion,

		_							•							
•	Water.	Nitrate of Iron.	Perculonde of Iron.	Permuriate of Iron.	Natrate of Copper.	Tersulphide of Arsemic	Munate of Arsenic.	Potash Solution of Sulphur.	Pearlash Solution.	Cyande of Potassum.	Ferrocyange of Potassium Sol.	Sulphocyanide of Potassium.	Hyposulphre of Node.	Nitric Acid.	Oxalic Acrd	
No	pt.	đr	dr.	pt.	oz.	gr.	υZ	đr	dr	oz.	pt.	dr.	dr.	dr.	07.	(n
1	1	5			ļ				*]			•		ļ	Brown, and very shade to black.
2	1		5	ļ						ļ	ļ		ļ			Do. do.
3	1	16,	.							١	١.		16			Brown, and every
4	1			٠٩				 			ļ		16	1	٠٠;	`a s o. do. Brownish jed
5	1		•••	•••	1	•••				ļ	l";			3	1	Do.
7	l'ï		l:::					١	l:::	۱ï	۱۱			4		Dark Joonn
8	l i					30		l	6	ļ	j		}			Yellow to red.
' 9	10	٠.,	[•			.		1	•••]	•••				•••	Orange.
10	1 2		٠	1		•••	•••				••••					Ohyg-green.
11	1		5	•1•	***		•					2	20			Blue.
11 12 13	11				4							1			•	Steel-prey.
14	Ιî			2			10						ı.			Biack.

N.B.—In the preparation of No. 5, the liquid must be brought to soul and cooled.

In using No. 13, the heat of the liquid must act be under \$80°.

No. 6 is slow in action, "aking and our to produce good results.

The action of the others is, for the rately page, immediate.

* THE AUTHOR'S BRONZING LIQUIDS OF 1861.

To be used for Copper by simple immersion.

•	Water.	Nitrate of Iron.	Jul-nate of Copper.	Sulphide of Antimong.	Sulphur.e	Muriate of Arsenic.	Pearlash.	Sulphocyanide of Potassium.	Hyposulphite of Soda. 9	Hydrochloric Acid.	,
No.	pt.	dr.	OZ,	dr.	dr.	dr.	Pe	-	E Hy	dr	!
16	1	5	١.				•	İ	١	ŀ	Brown, and every Judes
15	1	5				١		2			Dark-brown drab.
Å ⁶	1		1		•••		į		1	2	Do. Bright 1ed.
1 :	1			4	•••			١		١	Rea, and every shade to
15	- 1		•	ĺ	1	۱	1			,	black.
19	1		i	•••	•••	1	•••				Steel-grey, at 180 .

FOR ZINC

No. 20 21 22 23 24 25 26 27		: : : : : : : c. n Nitrate of Iron.	: : : : : . Protochloride of Itn.	F : : : : : 5 Suphate of Copper.		Muriate of Lead.	Fig. Pearlash.	Salphocyanide of Potassium.	: ; ; ; ; ; ; Hyposulphite of Soda.	: X; : : : : Garancine Infusion.	E : : : : : Logwood Infusion.	Black. Do., Dark grey. Do., Do. Oveen-grey. Rod.—Boil. {Copper-colour.} Plates so o_t_
							1	Ī				Convercolour.
28 29	1			8	'		٤.		8		 x	Copper colour, with agitation.

Made to the consistency of cream.

Mr. Larkin stated in 1866 that, for the purpose of rendering the alloys, which are of a silvery-grey colour, perfectly suitable as substitutes for copper, bronze, brass, and other metals, the colour proper to the metals of which they are intended to be substitutes is imparted to them by means of any solution of copper. The hydrochlorate of copper is found to answer best.

"Firstly. For giving the alloys a blackish-bronze colour, they are treated with a solution of the salt of copper diluted with a considerable quantity of water, and a small quantity of nitric acid may be added."

"Secondly. To impart a lead or copper colour, add to the solution of the salt of copper liquid ammonia and a little acetic acid. The salt of copper may be dissolved in the liquid ammonia.

"Thirdly. To impart a brass or antique bronze colour, either of the three following means may be adopted:—

"1st. A solution of copper, with some acetic acid.

"2nd. The means before described for copper colour with a large proportion of liquid ammofia.

"3rd. Water acidulated with nitric acid, by which beautiful bluish shades may be produced. It must be observed, however, this last process can only be properly employed on the allows which contain a portion of copper.

"In either of these methods of colouring, a solution

of sal-ammoniae may be substituted for the liquid ammonia. The quantities of oach ingredient have not been stated, as these depend upon the nature of the alloy, the shade or hue desired, and the durability required.

"The bluish-bronze colour may be superadued to the red or copper colour, whereby a brautiful light -colour is sproduced on the prominent parts of the article bronzed, or on the parts from which the blackish-bronze colour may have been rubbed off.

"These new alloys may be used as substitutes for various metals now in general use, such as iron, lead, tin, or copper, in pipes and tubes; and bronze, brass, and copper, in machinery and manufactories, as well as for most of the other purposes for which more expensive metals are employed."

Brass obtains a very beautiful drab-bronze by being worked in moulders' damp sand for a short time and brushed up.

LACQUERING.

This process is simply varnishing for the purpose of protecting the colour of the metal, and should be applied within an hour after dipping on bronzing.

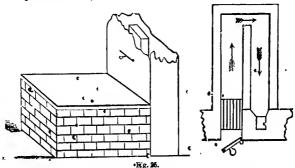
The lacquer, dike all other varnish, consists of a

solution of gum or resin; and when coloured, it is so by the introduction of other substances, usually anothor gum or resin.

The Materials.—These substances should be kept in separate and well-labelled bottles, both in a dry state (excepting liquids) and in solution, so that at any moment a required tint may be produced. Beneath, we give a list of the materials; wheir nature and properties will be found in their proper place.

The Effect of Light and Heat on Lacquers.— Throughout the whole of nature, light and heat produce wenderful effects. Some substances will remain as long as wished in the dark, but will change and explode when brought to the light. Lacquers, after a like order, change in the light, and become dark in colour; while heat, from whatever source, sets up evaporation and continual change. There is a common practice of keeping lacquers in black bottles, to prevent the action of light; but the lacquer might as well be in clear white glass bottles, as the only colour through which the chemical rays of light will not pass is yellow. Therefore, the only bottles in which lacquers can be kept free from its action are made of yellow glass or stone-ware.

Lacquer Dishes and Brushes — Besides the abovementioned bottles, there are required flat dishes, with cross rods and cainel-hair brushes. These dishes should be made of plate glass, cemented with marine glue; the plate glass drilled, and a glass rod inserted at the proper place, and also fixed with marine glue. The brushes must have no tinnedplate fastenings.



Lacquer Room and Store.—It is usual to set apart a room for the purpose of lacquering, to be perfectly

free from dust, and yot adjacent to the finishingshop. This room is furnished with a hot-plate stove, with the coking-door and ashirt outside of the room. The ordinary construction is that of the foregoing figure, where the vent passes up the wall which divides the finishing-shop from the lacqueringroom.

The flue passes to the front of the store, and the returns to the wall.

Lessometimes better to do away with the ordinary stove, and substitute a steam chest in the centre of the room. The steam chest need not be deep—usually about four inches—set on legs the height of a table. The other sizes will depend upon the amount of work sent through the lacquer-room.

An iron canopy, hung with weights on pulleys, surmounts the stove or steam ehest in order to confine the heat. A few old dish-covers for the same purpose, for small articles, will be found of service.

The work should be heated to the degree of boiling water, so as to drive off all cold and moisture, and cause the evaporation of the spirits in the lacquer.

When the work is too hot, it oxidizes.

The following table gives in detail the proportions of the various substances employed in the manufacture of lacquers; the broad principles by which colour is given to them will be apparent at a glance, and require no explanation

TALLE OF LACQUERS.

_			ı	_	Son	UTI	ONS		1	411	8.	_	YE	LLO	W8.		
•	Shellac.	Mustic.	Canada Balsam.	Spirits of Wine.	Pyro-acetic Ether.	Signite of Tunguitine.	Turpentine Ver. 1-h.	Simple Pale Liteques.	Drugent's Blood.	Anotta,	Saunders.	Turmenc.	Gasubose.	Saffron.	Capeciloes.	Sandarsc.	
7.	07.	dr.	dı.	n!	uv	dr	υZ,	р1.	dı.	di.	μr	4)	dı	dı.	dı.	dr.	
3	i		l ::	۱i۹	•		١.					i :		٠.			Strong simple. Simple pade.
	1	i	Ė	1								i .	1		3		Fine pale.
4	1		ĺ	1								1	1	2			Do.
5 6 7	1 2			2 2						8		32	16	4		8	led?
7	9			i					1	0			2	•••		8	Pale gold Pale yellow.
8	5			3	::0	1	1						-	***	•		Do. Ross'
91					1			1		1		4	1		•••		Full yellow.
0	3			Ÿ						2		16		2	*		Gold.
2	3			4			6			1.3		64	45			14	Do.
	1			1			•••					20			2	5	Do.
3	3	••••		1			•••		4			16					Deep gold.
4	6 3			1		::.	•••	•••		••		1			•••		Do.
5	3			1		30	•••	•••	40		12	10	••••	•••	•••		Do,
9	ï	■1.	•••	•••		•••	ï	1	8	$\frac{32}{21}$	•••	6.,.	•••	•••	•••	07	Red.
8	15	30	30	···			•	•••	20	21	•••	60	•••	:::	•••	27	Do.
ŝ	10	90	ov	0	••••	•••	•••	•••	20	•••	•••	ŲΨ		10		•••	Tin lacquer. Green, for broze

N.B.—The union of red with yellow produces a fine orange colour.

CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF PRECEDING METALS AND ALLOYS.

To Dissolve.—The metals and alloys are soluble in certain acids—mest of them require a little time: the finer they are reduced before being added to the acids, the sooner will the solution be complete. Coppor, zinc, bismath, and nickel are soluble in nurse acid.

Load and antimony are soluble in one part nitric acid with two
parts hot water.

Tin is soluble in hydrochloric acid.

To Precipitate:-

Copper, tin, lead, bisneuth, and antimony, when in acid solution, are precipitated when there is introduced into the solution sulphuretted hydrogen gas.

Zinc and nickel are precipitated by hydro-sulphuret of ammonia

When a precipitate is formed in any solution, a thermical union has taken place—two substances have united on account of the strong affinity they have for one another; they unite, not as an irregular mass, but in definite atomic proportions or fixed amounts. In the preceding precipitates, the sulphun of the precipitate unites to the metal and forms a chemical substance known as a Sulphule of the Metal.

Reduction to Relative Weights.—For the most part, these sulphides are composed of one grain or atom of sulphur with one grain or atom of the metal, except in the case of bismuth and autimony, where two grains of sulphur, unite with one grain of the metal. By using the word grain, we do not mean a grain weight, but the smallest conceivable quantity or atom. Now, to find the weight of this atom, which no one has ever seen, a cobic inch of the lightest known substance, hydrogen gas, is taken, and a cubic inch of sulphur, and we find that it takes sixteen of the cubic inches of hydrogen to roose the one cubic inch of

sulphur; so we say, the weight of sulphur is 16, and by the same process we find the weight of the metals to be—

Capper							31.~
Zine.							32.6
Tin .						. •	581
Lead						٠,,	103.7
Nickei					:		29.6
Antimo	ny	٠.	. 1	٠.			129
Bismut	'n.						213.

To Separate and Determine.—When it is the simple analysis of only one metal which is sought for, and that metal known, the dried sulphide precipitate contains 16 parts of sulphur to the number of parts placed opposite the name of the metal in the above list, except in the cases of hismuth and antimony, when the equivalent or weight for sulphur is 32.

When, however, the object treated is complex, separation must take place.

Tin is not soluble in nitric acid, and will remain behind as a binoxide of tin; every 74 grains of which contain 58 grains of pure tin.

If lead is present, it is precipitated by sulphuric acid as a sulphate; every 152 grains of which contain 104 grains of pure lead.

When copper is present, it is precipitated by sulphuretted hydrofen, washed with potash to dissolve the antimony or arsenic if present; every 48 parts of which contain 32 parts of copper.

If zine is present, precipitation is formed by carbonate of soda, and boiled; every 40 parts contain 32 parts of zine.

When it is wished simply to know what metal is present, the most convenient mode is to pound a grain weight of the substance under examination with about 100 grains of borax or other salt, and subject it to the blowpipe. See Plattner's Mitchell's, or Elderhost's werks for instructions on Blowpipe Analysis; also the respective metals, at page 80.

CLASSIFIED LIST OF MOST SUBSTANCES USED BY BRASSFOUNDERS.

MINERALS.

Black-lead.—Obtained from Cumberland, where it exists in a bed of trap-rock, alternating with elay-slate. It contains no lead, but is earbon; the same substance, chemically, as the diamond, except in a different condition, and ontaining a small proportion of iron, in which state it has been termed a non-cohesive alloy. Commercial black-lead is

often adulterated to the extent of from 30 to 70 per cent.

* Chalk.—Obtained from the white cliffs along the south-east coast of England. It is an earthy carbonate of lime. When scraped down, it makes a better polishing substance than the prepared thalk known as whiting:

Crocus. Obtained by calcining green vitriol, sulphate of iron, roasting, and washing. It is also prepared by precipitation with earbonate of soda. In this state it is very fine. It forms a sesquioxide of iron, soluble in acids.

Emery.—Obtained from the islands of the Grecian Archipelago, where it is found at the foot of the reinjitive mountains. It is a granular variety of corundum or adamantine spar. It ranks next to the diamond in hardness.

Plaster of Paris.—Obtained from gypsum by decomposition; it should be heated to dryness before being mixed, and used with as little water as possible. It is much adulterated.

Punice-stone.—Obtained from Campo Bianco, one of the islands of Lipari. It is the green glassy felspar melted by volcanie fire, and acted on by gases or watery vapours, and ejected as a whitish, spongy, porous substance. See Professor Silliman's "Visit to Europe in 1851," vol. ii. p. 4.

Sulphur. - In its crude state it is known as brim-

stone. It is an element of nature, soluble in hot potash, melts at 218°, and is volatile above 300°; burns with a blue flame, and leaves no residue. It is obtained from the sulphides of iron, Ead, and copper; in a purer state from Sicily, where it is found imbedded in blue clay. It is emitted from volcanoes, althoug a to no great extent, in the form of sulphurons-acid vapours, which crystallize into beautiful needle-shaped crystals, crossing and entangling with one another in brilliant and endless confusion. The connection between sulphur and volcanoes may be so expressed. Heat comes from the sun, and therewith electricity; the earth is charged with it according to the conduct-, ing or non-conducting nature of the soil; when the electric current is retarded by a bad conductors such as sulphur, soil heat is evolved; hence arise volcanoes in sulphurons countries. In like manner thunder-storms are simply valves for the escape of forces which would tear up the world by earthquakes.

Sulphur makes an excellent flux in the manufacture of brazing solder. It makes excellent casts, and is extensively used as a substitute for bat-lead.

Rotten-stone.—The sort commonly employed in this country is, according to Holtzapffel, peculiar to England, and is found in large quantities both in Derbyshire and South Wales. It is also obtained from Tripoli, in Asia Minor; and is much used, under

the name of *Tripoli*, all over the world. It is found in small patches in some of the western islands of Scotland; and furnishes beautiful specimens of the shells of the decayed plants for the microscope. This substance was formerly believed to be animal infusoria, and has been much studied of late, under the name of *Diatomacea*.

Sands,—Brassfounders' cands are obtained principally from Hampstead or Belfast. They contain about 94 per cent. of silex. Their properties have been already described.

Whiting.—Ground and washed chalk. Its particles are very fine, and hardly able to abrade. Its principal object is to absorb the oil or grease from the work previously polished by other means, and to impart a finishing gloss.

METALS.

Copper.—Obtained from Cornwall, in England, by calcining and roasting the ore, which yields 8 per cent or so of metal: we raise about 15,000 tons per annum. About ten times as much is imported from Chili, Cuba, United States, Australia, and South Africa. About 30,000 tons per annum are usually exported from this country to Leitish India, France, Egypt, and Holland.

Dan-p air, acid vapours, ammoniacal liquids, and gases produce green salts upon the surface of copper; it is also acted on by a weak solution of common salt, while it is not acted upon at all by a strong solution.

Copper is precipitated from solutions by sulphuretted hydrogen gas, giving a black deposit. It is also precipitated by potash, soda, carbonate of soda, and ammonia, yielding blue or bluish-green deposits. Ferro-eyanide of potassium gives a reddish-brown precipitate. In mass, copper and its alloys impart a green colour to the outer flame of the blowpipe when it is exposed to the inner flame.

Lead.—Obtained from Derhyshire, in the form of sulphide and slickenside ores. The term "slickenside" arises from the loose nature of the rock, which, on being struck, comes tumhling down for hours, while a series of violent and dangerous explosions is set up, and the ore is left broken to the miner's hand.

About 70,000 tons are raised annually in this country. About half that quantity is imported chiefly from Spain and Sardiuia. We export about 20,000 tons to the United States, France, and China.

The atmosphere produces on lead a coaling of carbonate of lead. Pure water absorbs a portion of lead, and forms a poison. Lead is precipitated from solutions by sulphuretted hydrogen gas, producing black deposit; it is also precipitated by potash, carbonate of soda, and ammonia, yielding a white precipitate. Chromate of potash gives rise to a vellor

deposit; in mass it produces a yellow oxide on char-

Tin.—Obtained from Cornwall, from the oxide, intermixed with quartz. The ore is blackish, but white when pounded; it is obtained in large pieces, being blasted by gunpowder. In the pounded state it is smelted and again refined. Though the cres are much mixed up with other metals, as arsenic, tin, zinc, copper, &c., yet they yield at times 70 per sent of pure tin. We raise about 10,000 tons a year, and import about half that quantity, chiefly from British India; while we export about 7,000 tons to France and the United States.

Air and water have little effect on tin; acids produce rapid oxidation, and at the melting point it is converted into putty powder. A black precipitate occurs with sulphuretted hydrogen; a purple with terchlorido of gold.

In mass, with equal parts of carbonate of soda and eyanide of potassium, as flux, metallic tin is produced by the inner flame of the blownipe.

Zinc or Spelter.—Obtained chiefly from Hamburg, Prussia, Belgium, and Holland. The ores are mostly carbonates and silicates, and are reduced by calcining and smelting. Zinc is very impure, being imperfectly reduced; there eximaining much arsenic and iron.

We import about 35,000 tons per annum, and obtain from British mines about 4,000 tons. The

'exports amount to about 8,000 tons to British India and France.

Exposed to the air zine becomes grey from a coating by oxygen. It is brittle when cold; duetile at 212° to 300°; brittle again at 450°; fuses at 770°; while at 940° it is converted into flowers of zine.

Potash, soda, and ammonia produce a white precipitate, soluble in excess of the precipitate.

In mass, moistened with cobalt, it produces a beautiful green before the blowpipe.

BASES AND SALIS.

As a general rule, bases are oxides of metals and salts are bases in union with acids.

Arsenic.—The arsenic of the shops is an oxide of the metal arsenic. It has acid properties, and receives the additional name of arsenious acid.

Bichloride of Platinum.—This is the metal platinum in union with two atoms of chlorine.

Borax.—This is the bi-borate of soda. It has a strong attraction for oxygen when heat is applied. Used as a flux, it frees the metal from its oxide, and allows the solder to have complete union with the motal.

Chloride of Zinc, also known as Muriate of Zinc.— This is formed when sheet zind is dissolved in hydrochloric acid, filtered, and caystallized. It is caustic, and used as a flux. Cream of Tartar.—The bitartrate of potash. This is used to dispose one metal to adhere to another.

Cyanide of Potassium.—The yellow prussiate of potash heated with the dry carbonate.

Ferrocyanide of Potassium.—The result of uniting potash with iron turnings and refuse animal matter. It is the yellow prussiate of potash.

Hyposulphite of Soda.—This is soda, plus hyposulphurous acid. It is soluble to a very large extent in water.

Muriate of Tin.—One ounce of powdered tin is dissolved in four ounces of concentrated muriatic acid by means of heat, and when cold is diluted with an equal bulk of water. This substance is used to tin 'from and steel. The iron is dipped into the solution, and by its side a plate of clean copper; a voltaic current is set up, and tin is deposited on the iron.

Nitrate of Copper.—This is copper, plus nitric acid; crystallizes blue; soluble in water, and readily parts with its copper.

, Nitrate of Iron.—This is iron dissolved in nitric neid to a syrup.

Perchlaride of Iron.—This is rust, or oxide, of rron, discolved in hydrochloric acid. Crystallizes red; soluble in water; yery corrosive.

Peroxide of Lion, Mydrated.—This is the precipitate which is formed on the addition of potash or ammonia to a colution of sesquioxide of iron. Potash is a crude carbonate of the hydrated oxide of potassium, and is obtained from America and Russia. It is also manufactured at home from the sulphate by roasting. It is a strong alkali.

Protochloride of Tin.—This is an excess of tin digested in hot hydrochloric acid. Its crystals are like needles. It is a deoxidizing agent.

Sal-Ammoniac.—This is hydrochlorate of ammonia. Can be made either from gas-liquor or bonc-liquor.

Soda.—A carbonate of sodium obtained from seasalt. It is a strong alkali, and, like potash, unites with oil, grease, or fatty matter, and is converted into soap.

Stannate of Potash.—This is potash with stanning acid, which acid is a product of potash and perchloride of tin. It is used for tinning in the same manner as cream of tartar.

Sulphide of Antimony.—This is simply sulphur, plus antimony. In itself it has little action; with potash, it deposits red on copper; with acids, its action is frequently apparent.

Sulphocyanide of Potassium.—This is made by digesting 3 parts of cyanide of potassium with 1 part of sulphur and 6 parts of water. The crystals are white, deliquescent, soluble in water, and unite with the persalts of iron.

"Tersulphide of Arsenic.—This is formed by sub-

limation of a reenious acid with sulphur. It is also found native. Those formed by nature are yellow and red, and may be produced by the receipt in the table of bronzes for brassy

White-lead.—This is subcarbonate of load, and is produced whenever sheet-lead is acted on by vinegar. Commercial white-lead contains contaminations of baryta, and sometimes chalk.

GUMS, RESINS, AND COLOURING SUBSTANCES.

Annotte.—Obtained from the seed of the Bixa

28 per cent. of resin, and 20 per cent. of colouring matter.

It has the colour of flame, and possesses a strong smell.

With pearlash the colour of annotta may be reguated in solution; precipitated thereafter with oil of vitriol, diluted with 20 parts of water, and dried.

Cape Acces.—Obtained from the aloc of the Cape of Good Hope. It contains a gum and a resin in mechanical mixture. In mass it is greenish brown; in powder it is a greenish yellow; soluble to a large extent in boiling water.

Drugm's, Blood. Obtained from various species of the genus Calamus, principally from Dracana draco.

or dragon-tree. One of these treef growing at Oratava, in Teneriffe, is said to be 6,000 years old at present. This plant is of very slow growth. The resin is of a red colour, so lump dark, in powder hright, and yields transparent solutions soluble in ether and alcohol. It is much adulterated. A factitious article is made from shellae, Cauada balsam, gnm benzoin, sanders wood, and Venetian red.

Gamboge.—Obtained from the Gracinia. It is brought from Siam, is yellow, and soluble in ether and alcohol.

Gum Arabic.—Obtained from the acacia-tree of Arabia, &c. Well known.

Gum British.—Chiefly used for giving adhesion to the sand for making cores; is obtained by exposing dry potato starch to calcination in a stove heated to 400° Fahr.

Lac.—Obtained as a concreto juice upon the branches of the Ficus Indica, &c., and is produced by the puncture of an insect. Lac should be obtained as pale as possible; when required white, it can be bleached by passing a current of chlorine gas through it, or by boiling the solution for a few minutes with animal charcoal, filtering through silk and then paper.

Resin.—An after-product in the making of turpentine. According to Liebig, all resins are oxidized essential oils. It is soluble in alcohol. Saffron.—Ontained from the pistils of the saffron cropus. It contains a polychromatic principle.

With alcohol it gives a gold-yellow solour; With sulshuric acid, a filac colour; With nitric acid, a green colour.

Sandarac.—Obtained from the juniper-tree of Africa; it has a slight smell; it easily dissolves:

Turmerics—Obtained from the Curcuma longa root of Ceylon. It imparts brown to alkalies, and red-to acids.

SOLVENTS, ACTOS, AND OILS.

Spirits of Wine, or Alcohol.—This is derived from malt. It is combustible, pungent to taste, and has a penetrating odour. It can be purchased free from duty, under the name of methylated spirits, and rectified as follows:—

To every pint add four ounces perfectly dry peariash; shake the bottle occasionally for several days, decant the clear liquid, and distil from a flask through a Liebig condenser. The product should yield 90 per cent. real alcohol.

Water is detected in spirits of wine by sulphate of copper; wood spirits, by potash. Under the name "Finish," alcohol is sold containing some resinous matter.

Pyroagetic Ether, or Acetone.—This is made by the dry distillation of acetate of baryta in a shallow -retort, and at as low a heat as consistent with its decomposition. The oil is separated from the product, and the latter rectified over quicklime, mixed with a little animal charcoal. The process is repeated till the boiling point is constant, and the acctone pure. Sulpharic Acid.—Oil of vitriol, a compound of

sulphar and oxygen. Well known.

Nitric Acid.—Aquafortis, a compound of nitrogen with oxygen in the proportion of 1 to 5.

Nitrous Acid.—The peroxide of nitrogen, having the proportion of 1 of nitrogen to 3 of oxygen.

Hydrochloric Acid. - Marine acid, or spirits of salt, a compound of equal proportions of nydrogen and chlorine.

Sulphuretted Hydrogen.—Equal parts of sulpher and hydrogen. A highly poisonous gas.

Sween Oil .- Formerly obtained from the wild or rape turnip, but now from the seeds of the Brassica napus.

Sperm Oil .- Obtained from the head of the spermaceti whale. Does not thicken by age or friction.

The quality of oils is known from the amount of scapy cream which arises when mixed with pearlash.

SAWDUSTS.

Sandust .- It is best obtained from boxwood, because it contains no resinous substance. The next best is from beechwood.

ON THE RECOVERY OF BRASS FROM THE ASHIPS AND SWEEPINGS OF THE FOUNDRY.

The ashes and sweepings are generally sold, the brassfounder not troubling himself with details of recovery.

In the case of sweepings, they are put into a tub with about four times their bulk of water and v ashed; the dust rises to the top, and after the metal settles to the bettom, the bulk of the water is poured off. This process is repeated till the water is pretty clean. The metal is allowed to dry, then put into a close crucible and melted. It is usually run into ingots.

More care is required with the ashes: the best smelters grind them before washing, and then proeed as above. The metal obtained from the ashes is generally rich in copper, and it is usual to add some zine, in order to reduce the quality.

Care must be taken to prevent fine particles being washed away.

ON THE RECOVERY OF COPPER FROM THE DIPPING, LIQUIDS.

Ir must be evident to those who have read the foregoing pages that, in the process of dipping brass, part of the figredients must be dissolved in liquids.

The best method of recovering the loss is by evaporating the liquids to a considerable extent, and introducing zine drops in order that they may be covered over with copper in which state they are melted in the usual manner.

ON THE USE OF SALT-CAKE.

In smelting expensive metals, the use of a little salteake as a flux greatly improves the appearance of the motal or alloy, the refuse uniting with the saltcake to the surface of the crucible, and is skimmed off.

WEIGHT OF BRASS.

There already exists a table of weights for cast crass per square foot, which has been published in several books. The author has had considerable difficulty in attempting to reconcile published with actual weights, on account, no loubt, of the different proportions of copper and zine used in its manufacture. This will be found at all times a difficulty with alloys.

The following tables, however, are calculated from all and repeated weighings at cardinal points, and are adapted to the present state of the trade.

The tables on sheet brass per wire gauge, brass tubings, bar brass, and brass wire, &c., will, the author trusts, be found of considerable advantage.

The first two tables are drawn out in a peculiar skeleton-like form, in order that attention may be directed to a sort of ratio which exists, especially in sheet brass per wire gauge, and at the same time to assist the memory in recollecting those sizes which have even weights.



TABLES OF WEIGHTS. SREET BRASS-BIRNINGHAN WIRE GAUGE.

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WEIGHTS OF COPPER, ZINC, TIN, AND IRON.

NEXT to brass and the allays rank copper, zinc, tin, and iron in importance to the brassfounder; and as these metals are always in demand, we have annexed the following tables of weights, which we have no doubt will be found of use.

Should these tables not furnish exactly the sizes required for any special calculation, the result required will be found by taking the weight in wrought iron, and multiplying it by

1.09 for brass, 1.15 for copper, 1.48 for lead, 0.94 for tin, 0.92 for zino, 1.01 for steel

WEIGHTS OF JOPPER.

SHEET COPPER, ONE FOOT SQUARE, ST WIRE GAUGE NUMBERS

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-		120
	19	E
CHES.		
P Ly	44.5	, 15 8. 8. 8. 8.
ROUND ROD ZINC, ONE FOOT LONG, BY PARIS OF INCHES.	4	16 ·65 1·4 2·5 3·8 6·3 7·3 9·7 15·1 21·8 29·9 38·6 48.8 60·3 73·8 6
r Pai	45	1bs.
e e	က	INS. 21.8
Ž	25	lbs.
Foor	67	. ibs.
ONE	14 14 14	7.3
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B	~	15. 2.5
Rom	2)1-4	ë ₹
	-	.e5
	4-	. i.

9.7 15·1 21·8 29·9 38·6 48·8 60·3 73·6 87

WEIGHTS OF TIN.

PLATES OF TIN, ONE FOOT SQUARE, BY PARTS OF INCHES.

•	-	1 2 8		
	10		-	•
å	* 140	1 1 E		
		\$ E	Bokk	
;	ni d	lbs.	~ **	-1-
	第一番 イ岩	15s.	ETER	
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•	14	184 4.8 7.3 9.5 11.9 14.3 16.17 19.0 21.4 23.8 26.2 28.5 31.9 168 168 168 168	Ordinary Block-Tin Tores, by Diameter of Bore.	votec
	-	- =	- E-	
	edito	ğ. ₹.₹.	Bro	•**□
	150	11.9	IRY	mato
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ORR.	:#	ş ç	
ORDINARY BLOCK-TIN TURES, BY DIAMETER OF BORK	† 1	lbs. oz.	
Y DIAM		30.0	
BES, B	rept.		1
Tra T	vote:	13.0)
BLOCK	~#c	. 20 0.0	
INARY	colto	4 °	
OHIO	•	9.0	

TINNED PLATES.

r			,	·			1
	Brand Mark.*	No. of Sheets in a	Dimei	nsiona.	We	ight of s	Box.
-		Box.	Length.	Breadth.	cwt.	qrs.	ibs.
	/1 C	225	133 131	10	1	0	* 0
1	2 C	225		92		3	21
	3 C	225	12	91	•	*3	14
!	II C	225	134	10	1	0	7
٠	Hx	225	13}	10	ī	i	7
	1x	225	132	10	1	i '	lò
J	2x	225	131	93	1	0	21
7	→3x	225	123	97	1	0	14
1	13.x	225	13 4	10"	ī.	1	21
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þ	D C	100	167	121		3	21
HON	Dx	100	164	12	ï	ŏ	14
	Dxx	100	16	121	ī	i	7
N.	Dxxx	100	16	121	ē	42	ó
10	Dxxxx	100	162	12	1	2	21
1	SDC	200	15	11"	ī	2	0
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L			-54		•	١	**
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WEIGHTS OF LEAD

SHEET LEAD, ONE FOOT SQUARE, BY PARTS OF INCHES.

	i i]	69-1	-
	***	2	7.4 11.1 14.8 18.5 22.2 25.9 29.5 33.2 36.9 40.6 44.3 48.0 51.7 55.4	-
	**	2	51.7	_
	2,0	ž	48.0	
;	44	á	44.3	
	72	lbs.	40.6	
٠	ucido)	ž	6.9	
,	िह	lg.	33.5	
	H4:0	lbs.	29.5	
	ಀ	ž	25.9	
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	mi#	lbs.	14.8	
	18	ğ	1.1	
	~to	ĕ.	7.4	
	*	ĕ	3.7	
		_		

SQUARE BAR LEAD, ONE FOOT LONG, BY PARTS OF INCHE

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ś	252	1	27.4	F
NCHI	saps	. 2	34.1	5
OF.	23.	ž	30.0	7
ARTS	23.8	1 2	27.8	ï
3X F	23	ž	25.0	:
oNG,	24	Ä	22.3	-
1	63	Bg	19.8	
	rie:	13	17.4	_
	14	ğ	15.2	_
	18	<u>5</u>	13.1	_
THE PARTS OF LOOF LONG, BY PARTS OF INCHES.	1 18 14 13 18 18 14 17 2 28 23 28 23 28 22 22 23 8 11 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 1	lbs.	11:11	-
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	7	ž	7.71	-
	78	Se	6.25	1
	-	Jos. 10s. 10s. 10s. 10s. 10s. 10s. 10s. 10	4.93 6.26 7.71 9.33 11.11 13.1 15.2 17.4 19.8 22.3 25.0 27.8 30.9 34.1 37.4 0.0 44.5	
			_	

MOUND BAR LEAD, ONE FOOT LONG, BY PARTS OF INCHES.

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3 in	iğ.	3
24	.bg	32.1
64	lbs.	29.4
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122	ig.	24.3 8.4.3
2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	lbs.	21.8
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Pires,	
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19	24.7	2 66	2.91	3.15	3.39	3.64	2.19 247 2 66 2.91 3.15 3.39 3.64 3.88 4.12 4.29 4.61 4.92 5.1 3,33 5.57 5.52 6.06	4.12	4.53	4.61	4.92	5.1	5,33	5.57	5.82	90.9

LEAD PIPES, ONE-QUARTER THICK.

		ĺ		ł												
-	1°	171	SI.	13	135	214	14	4	28	24	25	14 14 13 13 13 13 14 14 2 25 24 24 24 22 28 28 28 28 28 5 m.	25.	23 254	27	S'in
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4.85 5.34 5.81 6.3 6.8 7.3 7.76 8.2,8.73 9.21 9.7 10.3 10.7 11.2 11.7 12.2 12.8	5.34	5.81	6.3	8.9	7.3	92.2	8.2	8.13	9.21	9.7	10.3	19.7	11.3	11.7	12.5	12.8

WEIGHTS OF IRON.

13 14 15 16 17 18	11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	1 4 5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16 T7 18	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 26
13 14 15 16	11 12 13 14 15 16	9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16	8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16	6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16	5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16	4 5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16	2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 15 16
FI 81	11 12 13 14	9 10 11 12 13 14	8 9 10 11 12 13 14	6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	7 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14	8 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14	2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 14 has the transfer to the transfe
	11 13	9 10 11 12	8 9 10 11 12 1 12 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	6 7 8 9 10 11 12	5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12	3. 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 3. The lie lie lie lie lie lie lie lie	2. 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 70 11 12 13 15 11 1

PLATES OF IRON, ONR FOOT SQUARE. BY PARTS OF INCURS.

Ibs. Ibs. Ibs.	40	19	-14	16 4 16	edito	龙	-4:0	00	voko	70	1014	13	*	30 44 €1 in.	i.
5 5.0 4.5 100 12.5 15.0 17.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99.5 95.0 97.5 90 99	2	-	:				Ī	I	1			-	,	2	
5 6.0 4.5 10.0 12.5 15.0 17.5 90 00.5 05.0 07.5 0.0 0	į	8	ď	G	lbs.	,	lbs.	2	ž	2	,	2	1	1	1
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0.45 A. (1.1) S. (1.1	3	2	2	0.71	0.0	17.5	8	22.5	25.0	97.5	30.0	•	95.0	3.40	3

ELAT IRON, ONE INCH BY PARIS OF INCH, ONE FOOT LONG.

TABLES FOR CONVERSIONS INTO DECIMALS.

OUNDES INTO DECIMAL PARTS OF A POUND AVOINDUPOIS.

	•		16 oz.	2	1
			16	1	
•	8 oz.	99	164	76.	
'	73	9	15	ġ;	ĺ
i	2	.43	143	.90	
	6 1	.40 .43		18.	
	9	37	13½ 14	25	
	$\frac{5}{2}$	• <u>÷</u>	13	8.	
	9	.31	123	7.8	
	43	87.	12	75 78	
	₩,	.25	113	17.	
	63 463	.22	1.	69.	
	က	15 19 22	103	99.	
	$2\frac{1}{2}$.15	2	3	
ļ	5	15	1 6	69.	
	13	60	6	.56	
	-	9	18 18	.63	٠

Pounds Avoirdupois into Decimal Parts of One Hundredweight

qrs.	lbs.	owt.	qrs	. `lbs.	cw.	grs.	lbs.	CVI.	irs.	lbs.	ewt.
0	0 1 =	-0044	1	0=	25	&	0a_		3	0-	-75
0	1.	.0089	1	1	2589	2	_1	.5089	3	1	.7589
0	2	.0178	1	2	€678	2	2	6178	3	•2	.7678
0	3	.0268	1	• 3	2768	2	3	.5288	3	3	.7788
0	4 .	.0357	J.	4	3857	2	4	6357	-3	4	.7857
0	5	.0446	l .	5	.2946	2	5	5446	3	5	.7946
0	6	.0535	1	6	.3035	2	6	.5535	3 ,	• 6	.8035
0	7	.0625	1	7	·3125	2	7	.5625	3	7	.8125
0	8	.0714	1	8	.3214	2	8	.5714	3	8	.8214
0	9	.0803	1	9	.3303	2_	9	.5803	3	9	.8303
0	10	·0892	1	10	3392	2	10	$\cdot 5892$	3*	10	.8392
0	11	.0982	1	11	.3482	2	11	.5982	3	11	.8482
0	12	.1071	1	12	.3571	2.	12	6077	3	12	85
0	13 •	1160	1	13	3660	2 '	13	6160	3	13	·8660
0	14	125	1	14	.375	2	14	625	3	15	.875
0	15	.1339	1	15	.3839	2	15	·6339	3	15	.8839
0	16•	.1429	1	16	·3929	2	16	6429	3	16	-85-58
0	17.	·1518	1	17	4018	2	4 7	6518	3	17	·9018
0	18	.1607	٦.	18	.4107	2	18	6807	3	18	.9107
0	19	·1696	1	19	4196	2	19	6696	3	19	9196
0	20	1786	1	2 0	4286	2	20	6786	3	20	.9286
	21	·1876	1	21	4375	2	21	6875	3	21	.9375
	22	1964	1	22	4464	2	22	6964	3	22	.9484
	23	2054	1	23	4554	2	23	.7054	3	23	·95 5 4
	24	.2143	1	24	·4643	2	24	.7143	3	24	.9643
	25	$\cdot 2232$	1	25	4732	2	25	-7232	3	25	.9732
	26 🔹	$\cdot 2321$	1	26	4821	2	26	.7321	3	26	.9821
0	27	·24 l 1	1	27	·4911	2	27	·7411	3	27	·9 9 11
										•	

SQUARE INCHES INTO DECIMAL PARTS OF 1 Fr. SQUARE.

144"	130*	115"	100"	87*	72*	57*	43"	28'	14"
1.00	∙90 •	∙80	.70	•60	.50	•40	.30	·20	·10
. 18"	11"	10"	9"	8*	7"	6	4".3	240	.1"4
.9	-8⁴	-7	•8	•5·6	·ő	٠4,	→ ·8	1.2	·1
	•								-

BIEMINOHAM WIRE GAUGE, INTO DECIMAL PARTS OF UNE INCH

-	B.W.G. a in	B.W.C. = in.	B.W.G. = in.	B.W.G. = in.
	No. 1 = :31	No. 10 = 13	No. 19 = .042	No. 28 = ·014
I	2 28 3 26	11 · 125 12 · 109	20 ·035 21 ·032	29 ·013 30 ·012
Í	4 ·24 5 ·22 •	13 ·095 14 ·083	22 ·028 23 ·025	31 ·01 32 ·009
	6 ·2 7 ·187	15 ·072 16 ·055	24 022 25 02	33 ·008 34 ·007
1	8 166 9 158	17 ·056 18 ·049	26 ·018 27 ·016	35 ·005
-	9 100	18 049	27 -016	30 7 -004

Surface of Tubes, One Foot Lono, by Diameter, into Decimal Parts of Square Feet.

Bore Sur.ace	1636	·1963	2291	1 •2618	1 1 ·2945	11 3270	1 3 3599	1½ ·3927
Borg Surface	1.5	12	17	0	0.1	01	0.3	

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER,

THE following tables reckon from 3d. to 1s. 6d. per pound. By doubling the amount the reckoning gives easily to 3s per pound, which embraces the limits, generally, of a brassfounder.

THE BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL.

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER.

[be.		8.	d.	QTS	. ibe.		8.	d.	qrs	. lbs		8.	d.	qrs.	lbs.	•	š.	d.	ľ
1					1	0	is	7	0	2		ie	145	1	3	0	18	21	J	l
	1	is	1	3	1	1	,,	7	3	2	1	"	14	3	3	1	,,	21	3	
l	2	,, •	J	6	1	2	,,	7	6	2	2	,,	14	6	3 '	2	,,	21	6	l
١	3	,,	0	9	1	3	"	7.	9 1	2	3	,,	14	9	3	3	39	21	9	
	4	,,	i	0	1	. 4	,,	8	0	2	4	,,	15	0	3	4	,,	22	0	
	5	,,	1	3	1	5	,,	8	3*	2	5	,,	15	3	3	5	,,	22	3 '	î
	6	*	1	6	1	6	,,	8	6	2	6	**	15	6	3	6	,,	22	6	i
ì	?	11	1	9	1	7	,,	8	9 '	2	L 7	,,	15	9	•3	7	,,	22	9	
-	'8	٠,	2	0	1	8	,,	9	0	2	8	,,	16	0	3	8	٠,	23	0	
	9	,,	2	3	1	9	,,	9	3	2	•9	,,	16	3	3	9	,,	23	3	-
1	10	,,	2	6	1	10	,,	9	6	2	10	,,	16	6	3	10	,,	23	6	
-	11	,,	.2	0	1	11	,,	9	9	2	11	,,	16	9	3	il	,,	2 ₹	9	i
-	12	,1e	3	0	1	12	,,	10	0	2	19	,,	17	0	3	12		21	0	
l	13	,,	3	3	1	13	"	10	3	2	13	,,	17	3	3	13	,,	24	3	Ì
	14	,,	3	0	ı	14	٠,,	10	6	2	14	,,	17	ő	3	14	,,	21	6	
	15	,,	3	9	1	15	,,	10	9	2	15	,,	17	0	3	15	,,	24	•	1
	16	,,	4	ő	ı	16	,,	11	0	2	16	,,	18	0	3	16	٠,,	25	0	
	17	,,	4	3	1	17	,,	11	3	2	17	,,	18	3	3	17	,,	25	3	ł
-	18	,,	•4	6.	1	18	,,	11	6	2	18	,,	18	6	3	18	,,	25	6	1
1	19	,,	4	9	1	19	,,	11	9	2	19	,,	18	9	3	1 9	**	25	9	
	20	,,	5	0	J	20	,,	1 2	0	2	20	,,	19	0	3	20	,,	26	0	4
1	21	,,		3	1	21	,,	12	3	2	21	,,	19	3	3	21	,,	86	3	
1	22,	• ••	5	6	1	22	,,	12	6	2	22	,,,	19	6	1			26	6	
	23	,,	5	9	1	23	,,	12	9	2	23	,,	19	9	3	83	۰,,	26	9	
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1	25	,,	6	3.	1	25	,,	13	3		e :	,	20	3	\perp^3	25	,,	27	3	
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ŧ					1_		_						٠			_				

THE BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL.

The Hundredweight Reckoner. 4d. per lb., or 37s. 4d. per cwt.

1	lbs.		. s.	d	Ĭ.,,,	. 1 bs		8.	ď.	are	. lba		٤.	d.	ars	ibs.	_		
		•	- ••	ш.	i -	. 0		2	4	٠.	.0		18	8	3	0	is	28	
	3°	is	0	4	lï	٠.	٠,,	9	8	9 2	~	"	19	0	3	1	"	28	4
	2	,,	0	8	1				. 0	2		"	19	4	3	2)) 	28	8
1	3	"	1	0	1		••	10	4	2		" "	19	_	3	3	,,	29	0
	4	"	1	4	1		"	10	8	2		·"	20	Q.	3		·"	29	4
1	-	"	1	8.			"	11	04		5		20	4	3	5	"	29	8
	, o	"	2	٠,	•	. 6		11	4	2	6	"	20	8	,3	6	"	30	_
ï	7	"	2	4	1		,,	11	8	2	7	"	21	0	3	7	"	30	4
	8	"	2	8	1	8	"	12	0	2	8	"	21	4	3	8	,,	30	8
. !		,,	3	0	ı	9	,,	12	4	2	9	,,	21	8	3	9	"	31	0
	10	"	3	4	1	10	"	12	8	2	10	"	22	. 0	3	10	,,	31	4
j	11	"	3	b	1	11	29	13	0	2	11	,,	22	4	3	11	,,	31	8
1	12	مر 17	4	0		12	**	13	4	2	12	,,	22	8	3	12	,,	32	0
ļ	15	",	4	4	1	13	,,	13	8	2	13	11	23	0	3	13	-	32	4
	14	∵ν ,,		8	1	14	,,	14	0	2	14	,,	23	4	3	14	,,	32	8
	.5	,,	5	0	1	15	,,	14	4	2	15	,,	23	8	3	15		33	0
1	16	,,	5	4	1	16	,,	14	8	2	ľ	,,	24	0		16	"	33	4
1	17	,,	5	8	1	17	,,	15	0	2	17	,,	24	4	3	17	,,	33	8
	18	,,	6	0	1	18	,,	15	4	2	18	,,	24	8	3	18	,,	34	0
	19	,,	6	4	1	19	,,	15	8	2	19	,,	25	0	3	19	,,	34	4
-	20	,,	6	8	1	20	"	16	0	2	20	,,	25	4	3	20	,,	34	8
	214		7	0	1	21	,,	16	4	2	21	,,	25	8	3	21	,,	35	0
	2 2	,,	7	4	:	22	,,	16	8	2	22	,,	26	6	3	22	,,	35	4
1		,.		8		23	,,	17	0	2	23	,,	26	4	3	23	,,	35	8
	24	,,	8	0	1	24	,,	17	4	2	24	,,	26	8	3	24	,,	36	0
	25	,,	8	4	1	25	,,-	17	8,	2	25	,,	27	0	3	25	"	36	4
	26	,,	8,	8		26	,,	18	•	2	28	,,	27	4	3	26	,,	36	8
ľ	27	,,	3	U	r	27	,,	18	4	2	27	,,	27	Ü	3	27	,,	37	,0
Į					. 2	_													

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER. 5d. per lb., or 46s. 8d. per cwt. 0

														_			_		
ibs.		s,	d.	qrs.	. lbs.		8.	d.	qrs.	lbs.		s.	d.	qrs.	lba.		· .	d.	
l				1	0	is	11	8	2,	0	is	23	\$ 4	3	0	is	3 5	ō	ŀ
1	is	0	5	1	1	,,	12	1	2	1	٠,,	23	9	3	1	,,	35	5	l
2	,,	ď	10	1	2	: ن	12	• 6	2	2	٠,,	24	2	3	2	,,	36	10	
3	,,	1	3	1	3	,,	12	11	1	3	,,	24	. 7	-3	3	,,	36	3	l
4	,,	1	8	1	1	,,	13	4	2,	• 4	,,	25	0	3	.4	,,	36	8	l.
5	,,	2	1	l	5	٠,	13	9	2	5	,,	25	5	3	5	,,	37	1	ľ
6	,,	•2	6	ì	6	,,	14	2	2	6	,,	25	10	3	6	,,	37	6	l
7	,,	2	11,	1	7	,,	14	7	2	1	,,	26	3	3	7	,,	37	11	
8	,,	3	4	1	8	,,	15	0	2	8	**	26	8	3	b	,.	38	4	ļ
9	,,	3.	9	1	9	,,	15	5	2	9	,,	27	1	3	9	,,	38	9	
10	,,	4	2	1	10	•,,	15	10	2	10	"	27	6	3	10	,,	39	2	ļ,
11	,,	4,	7	1	11	,,	16	3	2	11	,,	27	11	3	11	,,		7	ſ
12	,,	é	0	1	12	,,	16	8	2	12	•,,	28	4	3	12	,,	40	-0	ŀ
13	12	5	6	1	13	,,	17	1	2	13	21	28	9	3	13	,,	40	5	l
11	,,	ō	10	1	14	,,	17	6	2	14	,,	29	2	3	14	,,	40	10	İ
15	,,	6	3	1	15	"	17	11.	2	15	,,	29	7	3	15		41	3.	I
16	,,	6	8	1	16	,,	18	4	2	16	,,	30	0	3	16	,,	41	8	l
17	11	7	1	1	17	,,	18	9	2	17	,,	30	5	3	17	,,	42	1	
18	,,	7	6	•1	18	,,	19	2	2	18	,,	30	10	3	18	,,	42	6	ĺ
19	,,	7	11	1	19	"	19	7	2	19	,,	31	3	. 3	19	,,	42	11	l
20	"	8	4	1	•20	٠,,	20	0	2	20	,,	31	8	3	20	,,	42	4	
21	,,	8	9	1	21	,,	20	5	2	2 1	,,	32	4	1 3	21	,,	43	9	
22	,9	9	2	1	22	,,	20	10	2	22	ß	32	6	3	2£	***	44	2	l
23	,,	9	7	1	23	,,	21	3	2	23	31	32	11	3		•	44	7	l
24	"	1(+	9	1	24	,,	21	8	2	24	,,	33	. 4	3	24	,,	45	0	١
25	,,	10	5	.1	25	,,	22	1	2	25	,,,	33			25	,,,	45	6	1
26	"	10	10	1	26	ø,	22	6	2	26	•,,	34	2		26	•,,`	45	٦0	i
27	· ,,	11	•3	1	27	33	22	11	2	27	,,	34	. 7	-3	9	,,	46	3	١
L				L .:	-		<u>٠</u>	-	Ŀ		_	•		<u> </u>					j.

THE BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL.

THE H-INDREDWZIGHT RECKONER. 6d. per lb., or 56s. per cwt.

								ı—		_							
lbs.	z,	đ	1 - 4	lbs.			d.	qrs.	ibe.		8.	d.	qrs.	lbs.		s.	d.
			1	۰0	iB	14	0	- 2	0	is	26	0	3	0	ÍB	42	Ü
l is	0	6	1	1	,,	14	6	2	1	,,	26	6	3	1	11	42	6
2 "	1	0	1	2	,,	15	0	2	2	,,	29	۰ و	3	2	,,	43	0
3,,	1	6	1	3	,	15	6	1:	3,	**	29	6	3	3	,,	43	6
4 ,,	2	0	1	4	,,	16	0	2	4	,,	30	4	3	4	,,	44	0
δ ₅ ,,	2	6	1	б	**	16	6	2	٠ 5	"	30	6	3	5	,,	44	6
6 ,,	3	0	1	6	,,	17	0	2	6	,,	31	0	3	6	,,	, 45	0
7,,	3	6	1	7	,,	17	ь	2	7	,,	31	6	3	7	,,	45	6
8 .,	4	0	1	6	27	16	0	2	6	,,	32	0	3	6	,,	46	0
'9,,	4	6	1	9	,,	16	U	2	9	,,	32	6	3	9	,,	46	6
10 ,,	5	'n	1	10	,,	19	0	2	10	,,	33	0	3	10	11	47	0
11 ,	5	6	1	11	,,	19	6	2	11	37	33	6	3	11	**	47	6
12 "	6	0	î	12	1)	20	10	2	12	**	34	0,	3	12	,,	46	0
13 "	6	6	1	13	,,	20	6	2	13	,,	34	6	3	13	,,	46	6
14 "	7	0	1	14	,,	21	0	2	14	,,	30	0	3	14	,,	49	0
15 "	7	6	1	15	,,	21	6	2	15	,,	35	6	3	15	,,	49	6
16 "	6	0	1	16	,,	22	0	2	16	11	36	0	3	16	,,	50	0
17 "	8	6	1	17	**	22	6	2	17	,,	36	6	3	17	,,	50	6
18 "	9	0	1	18	,,	23	0	2	16	,,	37	0	?	18	,,	51	0
19 "	9	b	1	19	"	23	6	2	19	11	37	6	3	19	,,	51	6
20	1.0	0	1	20	,,	24	0	2	20	,,	38	. 0	3	20	,,	52	0
21 ,,	10	6	1	21	,,	24	6	2	21	,,	36	ß	3	21	"	52	6
22 "	12	'e	1	22	,,	25	0	2	22	,,	39	0	3	22	,,	۲.3	0
23 "	11'	¹ 6	1	23	27	25	6	2	23	,,	39	6	3	23	,,	53	6
24 ,,	12	0	1	24	٠,	26	0	2	24	37	40	0	3	24	,,	54	0
25',,	12	٠ċ	1	95	,,	26	' 6	2	25	,,	40	6,	3	25	,,	54	6
26 ,,	، ور	٠ 8	1	26		27	50	2	26	,,	41	٥0	.3	26	**	55	0
27 ,,		~	1	27		27	6	2	27	,,	41	6	3	27	٠,,	55	6
			-		•	4		1.									

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECONRE. 7d. per lb., or 65s. 4d. per ewt. 0

114, THE BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL.

THE FUNDRED VEIGHT RECKONER.

8d. per 1b., or 74s. 8d. per cwt.

1																		
lbs.	,	s.	d.	qrs.	Ibs			d.	qrs.	lbs		s.	d.	qrs.	ibs.	,	z,	d.
,				ì	¥ 0	iis	18	8	, 2	"0	is	37	4	3	0	is	56	0
1 i	8	0	8	1	1	,,	19	4	2	1	,,	38	0	3	1	,,	56	8
2,	,	1	4 ⁿ	1	2	,,	20	0	2	2	1,,	38,	8	3	2	,,	57	4
3,	,	2	0	ı	3	p,	20	8	4	3,	,,,	39	4	3	3	,,	58	0
4,	,	2	8	1	4	,,	21	4	2		,,	40	ď	3	4	,,	58	8
Š 5 ,	,	3	4	1	5	,,	22	0	2	5	,,	40	8	, 3	5	,,	59	4
6,	,	4	0	i	6	,,	22	8	,2	6	,,	41	4	3	6	,,	60	0
7,	,	4	8	1	7	,,	23	4	2	7	,,	42	0	3	, 7	,,	60	8
! ጸ.		5	4	1	8	,,	24	0	2	8	,,	42	8	3	8	,,	61	4
9,	,	6	0	1	9	,,	24	b	2	9	,,	43	4	3	9	٠,,	62	0
10,		6	£	1	10	,,	25	4	2	10	,,	44	0	3		,,	62	8
11,	ţ	7	4	1	11	,,	26	0	2	11	,,	44	8	3	11		63	4
18 ,		8	0	i	12	,,	26	8 \$	1	12		45	4	3	12	,,	64	0
13 ,	,	8	8	1	13	31	27	4	2	13	,,	46	0	3	13	,,	64	8
, 44ع		9	4	1	14	,,	28	0	ł		,,	46	8	3	14	,,	65	4
15 ,	, 1	10	0	1	15	•,	28	8	2	15	37	47	4,,	3	16	,,	66	0
16,	, 1	10	8	1	16	,,	29	4		16	,,	48	0	3	16	,,	66	8
17,	, 1	l1	4	1	17	,,	30	0	2	17	,,	48	8	3	17	,,	67	4
18,	, 1	12	0	1	18	,,	30	8	2	18	,,	49	4	3	18	١,,	68	0
19,	, 1	12	В	1,	19	,,	31	4	2	19	,,	50	0	3	19	,,	68	8
20	ï	10	4.,	1	20	,,	32	0		20	"	50°	8	3	20	,,	69	4
21 ,	, 1	l 4	0	_1	21	,,	32	8	2	21	,,	51	A	3	21	,,	70	0
22,	, 1	rt 1	8	1	22	,,	33	4	2	22	,,	52	0	3	22	,,	10	8
23 ,	, 1	5	4	1	23	,,	34	0	2	23	,,	52	8	3	23	"	71	4
24 ,	, 1	6	0	1			34	8	2	24	- 1	53	4	!	24	"	72	0
25′,,	. 1	6	8	-1			35*	4	í		"	54		1	25	•••	72	8
26 ,		10	4	al :	26	,,	36 •			_	"	54		1		"	73	4
27,"		3 4	4	4	27 ,	,,	36	8	2				4		27		74	0
		-	-1			-	<u>,</u>	4	<u>`</u> _		_		_			٠,	-	- 1

THE BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL 115

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER. 9d. per lb., or 84s. per owt. 3

į					1				-	Ī								•	
Ì	lbs.		s.	d.	١-	. lbs	_	8.	d.	qrs.			s.		-			ľ	'n.
١.				_	1		is	21	0			_	42	• •	3	0		63	0
l	1	is	0	9	1	1	"	21	9	2		,,	42	9	8	1	**	63	9
	2	",	r	6	1		927		• 6	2	2	"	43	6	3	2	,,	64	6
	3	**	2	3	1	3	,,	23	•3	ķ	3	,,	44,	•	•3	3	"	65	3
1	4	**	3	0	1	T,	"	24	0	2	• 4	"	45	0	3	.4	,,	66	0
İ	5	,,	3	9	1	5	"	24	9	2	ō	**	45	9	3	5	**	66	9
I	6	"		6	1	6	,,	25	6	2	6	"	46	6	3		**	67	6
l	7	,,	ő	3	1	7	,,	2 6	3	2	1	,,	47	3	3	7	,,	68	3
	8	"	6	0	1	8	,,	27	0	2	8	,,	48	0	3	8	"	69	0
-	9	"	6.	. 9	1	9	,,	27	9	2	9	**	48	9	3	9	,,	69	9
	10	**	7	6	1	10	٠,	28	6	1	10	,,	49	6	3	1	,,	70	6
1	11	19	8	3	1	11	,,	29	3		11	"	50	3	3	11	,,	ا	3
1	12	,,	•	0	1	12	,,	30	0		12		51	0	3	12	1,	72	_ 0
	13	"	9	9	1	13	"	30	9	2	13	,,	51	9	3	13	١,	72	9
1	14	,,	10	6	1			31	6	2	14	,,	52	6	3	14	,,	73	6
l	15	,,	11	3.	1	15	,,	32	3	2	15	,,	53	3	3	15	2,	74	3
	16	,,	12	0	1	16	,,	33	0	2	16	,,	54	0	3	16	"	75	0
	17	,,	12	9	1	17	,,	33	9	2	17	1)	54	9	3	17	,,	75	9
ŧ	18	,,	13	6	•1	18	,,	34	6	2	18	,,	55	6	3	18	,,	76	6
١	19	,,	14	8	1	19	,,	35	3	2	19	,,	56	3	3	19	,,	77	3
1	20	,,	15	0	1	20	•,,	36	0	2	20	,,	57	0	3	20	77	78	0
1	21	,,	15	9	1	2	"	36	9	2	21	,,	57	•9	3	21	,,	78	9
١	22	ß	16	6	1	22	,,	37	6	2	22	•	58	6	3	22	,,,	79	6
١	23	,,	17	3	1	23	,,	38	3	2	28	,,	59	3	3	23	* ,,	80	8
ļ	24	,,	18	0	1	24	"	34	0	2	24	,,	60	0	3	24	,,	81	0
1	25	,,	18	9	٠1	2 <i>E</i>	,,	39	9	2	26	٠,,	60	9	3	25	,,	81*	9
١	26	,,	19	6	1	26	,,	40	6	2	26	٠,,	61	6	•3	26	,,	02	6
-	27	,,	20	• 3	l	27	,,	41	3	2	27	,,	62	3		~-		83	3
1					•	_	_			١.	_								

THE HUNDRED TRIGHT RECKONER. 1 10d. per lb., or 93s. 4d. per cwt.

1	lbs.	•		d.				r	đ.	qrs.			s .	d.	ı -	lbs.		8.	ď
١	•				I,	01	: i 8	23	4 ,	2	0	ís	46	8	3	0	ie	70	0 1
1	1	is	0	10	1	1	,,	24	2	2		,,	47	6	3	1	"	70	10
	2	,,	1	8	1	2	,,	25	0	2	2'	,,	48,	4	3	2	"	71	8
	3	,,	2	6	1	3	4))	25	10	2	8	,,	49	2	3	3	,,	72	6
	4	,,	3	4	1	4	,,	26	8,	2	4	,,	50	W	3	4	,,	73	4
Ì	5	,,	4	2	ļ	5	,,	27	6	2	б	,,	50	10	3	5	,,	74	2
	6	,,	δ	0	1	6	,,	28	4	,2	6	,,	51	8	3	6	,,*	· 75	6
!	7	,,	5	10	1	7	,,	29	2	2	7	,,	52	6	3	- 7	,,	75	10
•	, 8	••	6	8	1	8	,,	30	0	2	8	,,	53	4	3	8	,,	76	8
	9	,,	7	6	1	9	٠,	30	ľυ	2	9	٠,	54	2	3	9	٠,,	77	6
	10	,,	8	2	1	10	,,	31	8	2	10	,,	55	0	3	10	,,	78	-1
	11	,#	9	2	1	11	,,	32	6	2	11	,,	55	10	3	11	٠,	79	2
ŀ	1£	,,	10	0	ì	12	,,	33	4	2	12	,,	56	Ŗ	3	12	,1	80	0
	13	"	10	10	1	13	,,	34	2	2*	13	,,	57	6	3	13	,,	80	10
	14			8	1	14	,,	35	0	2	14	,,	56	4	3	14	,,	81	8
	15	,,	12	6	1	15	,,	35	10	2	15	"	59	2,	3	15	,,	82	6
-	16	,,	13	4	1	16	,,	36	8	2	16	,,	60	0	3	16	,,	83	4
İ	17	,,	14	2	1	17	,,	37	6	2	17	99	60	10	3	17	"	84	2
	18	,,	15	0	1	18	,,	38	4	2	18	,,	61	8	C	18	١,,	85	0 9
1	19	,,	15	15	1	19	,,	39	2	2	19	,,	62	6	3	19	,,	85	10
Į	_20		.ī.C	٩.,	4	20	,,	40	0	2	20	,,	63	4.	3	20	,,	86	8
	21	٠,,	17	6	,1	21	,,	40	10	2	21	"	64	,2	3	21	,,	87	6
ı	22	,,	16	4	1	22	"	41	8	2	22	,,	65	0	3	22	"	08	4
į	23	٠,,	19	42	1	23	,,	42	6	2	23	,,	65	10	3	23	,,	89	2
1	24	,,	20	0	1	24	•	4 3	4	2	24	,,	66	8	3	24	,,	90	0
i	25	,,	20	T0	1	95	. ,,	44'	2	2	25	,,	67	жв	3	25	99	90	10
1	26	"	Źi	8	al	26	,1	45	٠0,	2	26	,,	08	4	.3	26	,,	91	8
			22		. 1				10	2	27	,,	59	2	3	27	,,	92	6
		_						-;-		Ŀ	_	<u></u>			_				

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECEONER. 11d. per lb., or 102s. 8d. per cwt.

		-	•		_			·					1			-	
lba.	8.	ď.	Qrs:			8.		Qrs.			s.		QIS.			•.	
			1	þ	ís	25	8		0	is	51	4 (3	0	is	77	. 60
l is	0	11	1	1	,,	26	7	2		,,	52	3	3	1	,,	77	11
2,,	1	10	1	2	,,	27.	. 6	2	2	٠,,	53	2	3	•2	99	78	10
3,,	2	9	1	3	,,	28	5	`.2	3	,,	54	1	8	3	,,	79	9
4 ,,	3*	8	1	¥	,,	29	4	2	4	,,	55	0	8	4	"	80	8
5 ,,	4	7	1	5	,,	30	3 •	2	5	,,	55	11	3	5	,,	81	*
6 ,,	5	6	1	8	,,	31	2	2	8	,,	58	10	8	6	,,	82	8
7 "	6	ű,	1	7	,,	32	1	• 2	7	,,	57	9	3	7	,,	83	5
8 ,,	7	4	1	8	,,	33	0	2	8	,,	58	8	3	ఠ	,,	84	4
9 ,,	8	3	1	9	,,	33	11	2	•0	,,	59	7	3	9	55	00	~ 3
10 ,,	9	2	1	10	,,	34	10	2	10	,,	60	6	3	10	**	86	2
11 ,, 1	Į0	1	1	11	,,	35	9	2	11	,,	81	5	3	11	,,	87	1
12 ,, 1	1	0	1	12	,,	36	8	2	13	,,	62	4	9 3	12	,,	88	0
13 ,, 1	11	11	1	13		37	7•	2	13	,,	63	3	3	13	,,	-88	11
14 ,, 1				14		38	6	2	14	,,	64	2	1			89	
15 ,, 1		9	1	15	,,	39	5	2	15	,,	65	1	3	15	,,	90	9
18 ,, 1		8		16		40	4	l l	18		66	0	1	16		91	8
17 ,, 1		7		17		41	3	2	17	•••	66	11	1	17		92	7
18 ,,		6		18	,,	42	2		18	•••		10	1	18		93	6
19 ,,		ő	т .	19		43	1	1	19	•	68	9	1	19		94	
20 ,,		4	1			14	0		20		69	8	ا	20	•••	95	4
21 ,,		3	1	21					21	,,	70	7	1 .	21	-	_	_
22 .,		2	!	22			10	1	22		-	6	-	30			
23 ,,		1	Į.	23			9	1	23		72	5		33	-	98	_
24 ,,		_				47	8	1	24			4		24			
25 ,		•		25	"	48	7		25		-	8		25			
28 ,			1	26		49	G	1	25		76	-		-			10,
27 ,,			i	27	••	50	5	Ι.	27				•	•	- 2	101	
21 "	- 71	, ,	i t		**	99		l *	41	"	•••	•	1.	•	,,	101	•

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER.
1s. 1d. per lb., or 121s. 4d. per owt.

		_				_								1 1	-			
lbs.	•	e.	d.		, lbs		s.	d.	qn	s. lbe	١.	s.	d.	ģn	. lbs		z.	d
• •				1	0	į8	30	4	2	Ð	is	60	81	3	0	is	91	0
1	is	1	1	1	1	,,	31°	5	9,5	1	,,	61	9	3	1	,,	92	1
2	,,	2	2.	1	2	,,	32	6	2	Ł 2	ę,	62	10	3	2	"	93	2
8	,,	3	3	1	3	,,	3 3	7	2		٠,,	63	11	3	3	,,	94	3
4	,,	4	4	1	4	,,	34	8	2	4	٠,,	65	0	3	4	,,	95	4
- 5	,,	5	5	1	5	>>	35	9	2	• 5	,,	66	1	3	5	"	96	5
6	,,	6	6	1	6	"	36	10	•2	6	27	67	2	3	6	,,	97	6
7	,,	7	7	-	7	"	37	11•	2	7	,,	68	3	5	7	"	98	7
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THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER.

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13 , 16, 3	1 13 "	51 3	2 1€ "	66 3	3 13 ,, 121 3	3
14 , 17 6	1 14 ,,	52 6	2 14 ,,	67 • 6	3 14 ,, 122 6	;
18 , 18 9	1 15 ,,	53 9	2 15 ,,	88 9	3 15 ,, 123 9	, [
16 ,, 20-	1 16 ,,	55 O	2 16',	90 0	'3 16 ,, 125 0	
17 " 21 3	1 17 "	56 3	2 17 ,,	91 3	3 17 ,, 126 3	3
16 ,, 22 6	1 18 "	67 6	2 18 ,,	92 6	3 16 ,, 127 6	3
19 ,, 23 9	, 1 19 "	58 9	2 19 "	93 9	3 19 ,, 126 9)
20 ,, 25 0	1 20 ,,	60 0	2 20 ,,	احسيةكا	,3 20 ,, 130 O)
21 ,, 26 3	T 21 ,	61 3	2 21 "	96 3	3 21 ,, 131 3	3
22 , 27 6	1 22 ,,	62 6	2 22 ,,	97 6	3 22 ,, 132 , 6	6 J
28 ,, 26 9	1 23 "	68 9	2 23	98 9	3 28 ,, 133 9	96
24 ,, 30 0	1 24 ,,	6 5 0	2 24 ,,	1^9 0	P	10
25 ,,31 3	1 25 "	66 3	2 25 ,,	101 3	•	3
36 , 32 6	1 26 ,,	67 6	i	102 6		6
27 ,, 37 9		68 9	t .	103 9		9
	-		,		"	- 1

HE BRASSFOUNDER'S MANUAL.

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER. s. 3½d per lb., or 14s. 8d per cwt.

			-	9				-							٠. '	•	
lha.		8,	d.	grs.	•		s,		qre.				1	qrs.			d.
				1	•	,	3 6	2	•	0		-2	4	_		is 108	-
1	is	1	31	1	1	,,		$5\frac{1}{2}$, ,	•		• ⁷³	7			,, 109	93
2	,,	2	7	1	2	,,	38	9	2	2	10	74	11	3	2	,, 111	1
3	,,	3	101	1	3	,,•	40	Õį	皇	3	,,	76	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	3	,, 112	4 }
4.	,,	5	•2	1	40	"	41	4	2	4	,,	77	e G		4	,, 113	8
6	"	6	$5\frac{1}{2}$	1	5	,,	42	$7\frac{1}{2}$	2	ø	,,	78	$9\frac{1}{2}$	3	ą.	,, 114	111
6	,,	7	9	1	● 6	,,	43	11	2	•6	,,	80	1	3	0	,, 116	3
7	,,	9	01	١,	7	٠,	45	$2\frac{1}{2}$	3	7	,,	81	4 }	3	7	,, 117	$6\frac{1}{2}$
8	,,	10	4	1	8	,,	46	6	2		-,,	82	8	3	8	, 118	10
9	,,	11	$7\frac{1}{2}$	1	9	,,	47	$9\frac{1}{2}$	2	9	,,	83	$11\frac{1}{2}$	3	9	,,120	· 1½
10	,,	12	11	1	10		49	1	2	10	,,	85	3	3	10	,, 121	5
11	11	14	21	1	11	,11	50	4 }	2	11	,,	86	$6\frac{1}{2}$	3	1P	,, 122	81
12	,,	15	6	1	12	1,	51	8	2	12	٠,	87	10	3	12	777	0
13	,,	16	9.	1	13	,,	52	11	2	13	,,	89	1 3	3	13	,, 125	€ C§
14	,,	18	1	1	14	,,	54	3	2	14	,,	90	5	3	14	,, 126	7
15		19		1	15	,,	55	6	2	15	,,	91	81	3	15	,, 127	10
16	,,	20	8	1	3 6	,,	56	10	2	16	,,	93	0	3	16	129	2
17			11	, 1	17	,,	58	1	2	17	,,	94	3]	3	17	,, 130	5
18	,,	23	3	<u>.</u> 1	18	,,	59	5	2	18	,,	95	7	3	18	,, 131	9
19			6]	1	19	,,	60	R	2	19	,,	96	10	3			
>20				1			62	0		20			2	•3	20	,, 134	-
,		27	1		• 21	•		3	1	21			5			,, 135	
١.		28	•	-1	22			7	2	22		100		١.		,, 13 6	-
28		29			23			10:				102		1		, 1 38	
2		31	0	°l	2	•			1			103		1		,, 139	•
25 26		, 32	-	}	25	•	•		1							,, 140	
		, 3 2 , 3 3		٠	26			9	- 1							,, 142	
		, 33 , 34			27			0			•			1 -		,, 14	_
41	. ,	, 04	10	· 1	21	25	, 11	v	2 2	41	"	TAN	4	1		,, 4	*

THE HUNDREDTTRIGHT RECKONSE.
18. 4d. per lb., or 149s. 4d. per cwt.

lbs.		d.	qr	s. Ibs		5.	ď,	qr:	s Iba		8.	d.	4. I	, Hr.		s,	d.
1			1	1 0	ig	37	4	2		is	74	8	3	0	is	112	0
1	is	4	1	1	,,	38	8	12	1	,,	76	0	3	1	,,	113	4
2	,, :	8 5	1	2	,,	40	0	2.	2	,	77	4	3	2	,,	114	8
3	,, (0	1	8	21	41	4	2	3	,,	7 8	8	3	3	,,	116	0
4	,, (4	1	1	,,	42	8	2	4		80	0	3	4	,	117	1
5	,, (5	,,	44	0	2	5	71	81	4	3	5	,,	118	8
6	,, {	3 0	1	6	,,	45	4	2	6	31	82	8	J	6	,,	120	0
7	,, 9	4.	1	7	,,	46	89	5	7	,,	84	0	3	7	,,	121	4
8	,, 10	8 (1	8	,,	48	0	2	8	**	85	4	3	18	13	122	8
9	, 19	5 0	1	9	,,	49	4,	2	9	,,	86	8	3	9	,,	124	0
10	,, 13	4	่ 1	10	99	50	8	2	10	,,	88	0	3	10	,,	125	4
11	,, 14		į 1	11	,,	52	0	2	11	,,	89	4	3	11	,,	126	8
12	"Ī	0	1	12	,,	43	4	2	12	,,	90	8	3	12	,,	128	0
	13		1	13	,,	54	8	2	13	,,	92	0	3	13	1)	129	4
14	,, 18	8	1	14	,,	56	0	2	14	,,	93	4	3	14	,,	130	8
K	,, 20	0	1	15	,,	57	4	2	15	,,	94	8	3	15	,,	132	0
16	,, 21	-4	1	16	,,	58	8	2	16	,,	96	0	3	16	,,	133	4
17	,, 25	8	1	17	,,	60	0	2	17	,,	97	4	3	17	,,	134	8
18	,, 24	. 0	1	18	"	61	4	2	18	,,	98	8	3	18	"	136	0
19	,, 2	4 ,	1	19	,,	62	8	2	19	,,	100	0	3	19	1,	137	4
20	,, 20			20	,,	64	0	2	20	,,	:01	4	3	20	,,	138	8
2:	;,'2	_	i i	21	,,	65	4	2	21	,,	102	8	3	21	,,	140	0
22	,, 20	4	1	22	,,	66	8	2	22	,,	104	0"	3	22	,,	141_	4
23	, 30	.8,	1	23	,,	68	0	2	23	,,	105	4	3	23	,,	142	8
24	,, 3:	0	1	24	,,	69	4	2	24	,,	196	8 1	3	24	,,	114	å,
25	, 38		1	25	,,	76	8	2	25	,,	108	0	3	25	;,	145	4
26	,, 34	8	1	20		72	Q,	1	26	,,	109	4"	3	28	,,	146	8
	<i>ું</i> કુ		l	27		53	4				110	8.	3	27	,,	148	9

The Hundredweight Reckoner.

1s. 42d. per lb., or 154s. per cwt.

			*								_						_	
١.		s.	d.	dia	\ '18		s.	d.	qrs	ibs.	,	8.	d.	qrs.	lbs.	•	5.°	d.
				1	ò	is	38	6	2	.0	is	77	•0	3	0	is 1	l5	6
	is	1	44	1	1	"	39	101	2	Ĭ	,,	78	1 }	3	1	,, 11	16	10]
1	,,	z	9.	1	2	"	41	•3	.2		•		9	3	Ż	,, 11	18	3
;	,,	4	1 3	1	3	,,	42	71	2	3	,,	81	14	3	3	,, 13	19	7 1
٠	,,	5	6	1	4	,,	44	o	2	4	,,	82	6	3	4	,, 12	21	0
1	,,	6	$10\frac{1}{2}$	1	5	,,	45	4 2	•2	ő	,,	83	$10\frac{1}{2}$	3	•5.	,, 12	22	4
	,,	3	3	1	6	••	46	9	2	6	.,	85	3	•3	6 ۵	,, 12	23	9
	,,	9	7 2	ŀ	7	,,	48	1 1	2	7	,,	86	71/2	3	7	,, 19	25	1 1
	,,	11	C	L	8	,,	49	6	2	8	,,	88	0	3	8	,, 12	26	6
	,,	12	• $4\frac{1}{2}$	1	9	,,	50	101	2	9	,,	89	41	3	9	,712	27	พู
	,,	12	9	1	10	,,	52	3	2	10	,,	90	9	3	10	,, 15	29	3
	,,	15,	13	ı	11	,,	53	71/2	2	11	,,	92	11	3	11	₂ , 17	30	71
	,,	ıc	6	ı	12	,,	55	0	2	12	٩,	93	6	•3	12			0
	"	17	$10\frac{1}{2}$	1	13	,,	56	41/2	• 2	13	,,	94	10^{1}_{2}	3	13	,, N	3	41
	,,	19	3	1	14	,,.	57	9	2	14	,,	96	3	3	14	,, 13	3 1	9
	,,	20	73	1	15	,,	59	11	2	15	,,	97	$7\frac{1}{2}$	3	15	,, 18	36	1 }
	,,	22	0	1	16	,,	60	6	2	16	,,	99	0	3	16	"Ti	7	6
	,,	23	41	1	17	,,	61	$10\frac{1}{2}$	2	17	,,	100	41/2	3	17	,, 18	8	103
,	,,	21•	9	, l	1-8	,,	63	3	2	18	,,	101	9	3	18	,, 14	0	3
	,,	26	1.1	1	19	,,	64	71	2	19	,,	103	1,	3	19	,, 14	1	7₺
ı	,,	27	6	ı	20	9	-6	0	2	20	,,	104	6	3	20	_ 14	13	0
	,,	28	10}	ı	21	,,	67	$4\frac{1}{2}$	2	21	,,	105	101	3	21	,, 14	14	4
3		30	3	1	22	,,	68	9	2	22	•	107	3	3	22	,, ¥	1.5	9
;	,,	31	$7\frac{1}{2}$	1	23	,,	70	11	2	23	,,	108	71/2	1	-	; , 1:		11
;	,,	33	0	1	24	,,	79	6				110	0	3	24	,, 1	18	6
i	,,	34	41/2	.1	25	,,	72	10^{1}_{2}	1			111	4 <u>1</u>	ı		, 1		•1 0}
ì	,,	35	9		26		74	3				112	9			, pl		
,	,,	37	J		27	•	75	71				114	1 1			,, 1		7 į
_				1				-			.,	_	• '			.,		

Ibs. s. d. grs. lbs.

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER. 1s. 5d. per lb., or 158s. 8d. per cwt.

•	1 0~is	39 8	2 0 is 79 4	3 0 is 119 0
1 is 1 5	11,		2 1 , 80 9	3 1 ,, 129 5
2 ,, 2 1	12,,	42 6	2 24, 82 2	3 2 , 121 10
3,, 43	1 3 "	43 11	2 3 ,, 83 7	3 3 ,, 123 3
4,, 58	1 4 ,,	45 4	2 4 ,, 85 0	3 4 ,, 124 8
75,, 7 1	1 5 ,,	46 9	2 5 , 86 5	3 5 "126 I
6,, 8 6	16,	48 2	2 6 ,, 67 10	3 6 ,,127 6
7 ,, 9 11	17,,	49 17	2 7 ,, 89 3	3 7 ,, 128 11
8 ,, 11 4	18,	51 0	28,908	3 8 , 130 4
s., i'.' 9	19,,	52 (1	2 9 ,, 92 1	3 9 ,, 131 9
10 ,, 14 '2	1 10 ,,	53 10	2 10 ,, 98 6	3 10 ,, 133 2
11 , 15 7	1 11 ,,	55 3	2 11 , 94 11	3 11 ,, 134 7
12 ,, 17 0	î 12 .,	56 • 8	2 12 ,, 06 4	3 12 , 136 0
18 , . 8 5	1 13 "	58 1	2"13 ,, 97 9	3 13 ,, 137 5
14 ,, 19 10	1 14 "	59 6	2 14 ,, 07 2	3 14 ,, 138 10
15 ,, 2t 3	1 15 ,,	60 11	2 15 ,, 100 7	3 15 ,, 140
16 "*22 8	1 16 ,,	62 4	2 16 ,, 102 0	3 16 , 141 8
17 ,, 24 1	1 17 ,,	63 9	2 17 , 103 5	3 17 ,, 143 1
18 " 25 6	1 18 "	65 2	2 18 ,, 101 10	3 18 4, 144 6
19 " 26 13	1 19 "	66 7	2 19 ,, 106 3	3 19 ,, 145 11
20 ,, 28 4	1 20 ,,	68 0	2 20 ,,,, 8.	3 20 , 147 4
21 , 29 9	1 21 ,,	69 5	2 21 ,, 109 1	3 21 ,, 148 9/
22 ,, 21 2	ï 22 ,,	70,10	2 22 ,, 110 6	3 22 ,, 150 2
23 " 32"7	1 23 "	72 3	2 27 ,, 111 11	3 23 ,, 51 7
24 ,, 34 0	1 24 ,	73 8	2 24 ,/113 4	3 24 ,, 153 0
25:, 35.5	25 "	75 1	2 25 ,, 114 ,9	3 25 , 154 5
26 . 36 16	26 "	76 . 6	2 26 ,, 116 , 2	3 26 ,, 155 10
27 ,, 38 3	1 27 "	77 11	2 27 ,, 117 7	3 27 ,, 157 · 3
	·			

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECEDIES.
1s. 51d. per lb., or 163s. 4d. per cwt.

			*	_	-			-								
lbs.	8.,	d.	asp.					qrs.			8,		qrs.		2,0	đ.
			1	0	19	40	10	• 2	.0	18	81	•		0	is 122	o.
1 is	1		1	1	,,	12	3 }	24	1	"	• 83	11	3	1	,, 123	111
. 2 ,,	2	11	1	2	,,_	43	9	2	2	"	84	7	3	2	,, 125	5
3.,	4	43	t	3	,,	45	$2\frac{1}{2}$	2	3	,,	86	01	3	3	,, 126	101
4•,,	5	10	1	4	,,	46	8		4		87	6	3	4	,, 128	4
5,,	7	$3\frac{1}{2}$	1	5	,,	48	13	•2	5	,,	88	111	3	€5•	,, 129	93
6,,	8	9	l ı'	6	,,	49	7	t	• 6		90	5			,, 131	3
7 ,,	16	$2\frac{1}{2}$. 1	7	,,	51	01	2	7.	٠.,	91	101	3	7	,, 132	81
8,,	11	8	•1	8	,,	52	6	2	8	,,	93	4	3	8	,, 134	2
9 ,,	13	.1½	1	9	,,	53	113	2	9	٠,,	94	94	3	9	, 7 135	-7
0,,	14	7	1	10	,,	55	5	2	10	,,	96	3	3	10	, 137	ı
.1 "	16	$0\frac{1}{2}$	1	11	,,	56	103	2	11	,,	97	81	3	11	,, 138	61
.2 ,,	17	6	1	12	,,	58	4	2	12	٩,	99	2	~ 3	12	,, 1 40	U
.3 ,,	18	111	1	13	,,	59	03	• 2	13	,,	100	75	3	13	,, ⊯1	61
.4 ,,	20	5	1	14	,,	61	3	2	14	11	102	1	3	14	,, 112	11
ıō ,,	21	102	1	15	,,	62	ខរ្ម	2	15	,,	103	$6\frac{1}{3}$	3	15	,, 144	42
16 ,,	23	4	1	16	,,	64	$_2$	8	16	,,	105	0	ü	16	" 4 45	10
.7 "	24	១៛	1	17	,,	65	7	2	17	,,	106	5 į	3	17	,, 147	3 !
18 "	26	• 3	•1	18	,,	67	1	2	18	,,	107	11	3	18	,, 148	9
19 ,,	27	81	1	19	,,	68	6	2	19	,,	109	41/2	3	12	,, 150	$2\frac{1}{2}$
₹0 ,,	29	2	1	20	7	70	0	2	20	,,	110	10	*3	20	,, 151	8
21 ,,	30	73		21		71	5	2	21	,,	112	$_{3\frac{1}{2}}$	3	21	,, 153	13
12 ,		1	t	22		72	11	1			113	• -	-		,, 154	7
?3 ,,		61	ŧ	23				1		•	115			•	,, 156	01
₹4 ,,		0	1		,,		10				116	-	ł		, 157	6
15 ,		5	ł	25		77	3				118	•	ı		, 158	-11 <u>‡</u>
16 ,,		-	{ -		.,	78		1			119			_ `	160	•
17 %,				27	_						121			,	" 161	
- ",		<u>-</u> 2	<u> </u>		n	-	-,	1 -		"		• 2	ءَ ا	•	,,	

THE HUNDREDWEIGHT RECKONER.

10. 6d. per lb., or 168s. per cwt.

s. d. grs. the. s.

٠	٠				'n	Q-	is	42	0 ,	26	0	is	84	6	3	0	is 12	6	0
	1	is	1	6	1		,,	43	6		1	,,	85	6	3	1	,, 12	7	G
	2	,,	3	ն	1	2	,,	45	0	2	2	v	87	0	3	2	, 129	0	0
	3	,,	4	6	ļ		,,	46	6	2	3	,,	58	6	3	3	., 130)	0
	4	1)	6	0	1	4	,,	48	0	2	4	,,	90	Ö-	3	4	,, 13:	3 •	0
ধ	5	,,	7	60	1	5	,,	49	6	1 2	5	,,	91	6	3	5	,, 13	3	G
	6	,,	8	٥,	í	G	"	51	0	2	6	,,	93	0	3	6	,,13	5	0
	7	,,	10	n6	ı	7	,,	52	13	٤2	7	,,	94	6	.3	7	,, 130	G	G
			12	0	1	8	,,	54	0	2	8	,,	96	0	3	8	,, 138	3	0
***	y	,,	ľ	6	1	9	,,	55	t)	2	9	,,	97	6	3	9	,,, 139	9	6
	10	"	15	١٥,	1	10	,,	57	0	2	10	"	95	0	3	10	,, 14	ı	0
	11	,,	16		1	11	,,	58	6	2	11	,,	100	6	3	11	, 14	2	6
			18	0	1	12	,1	00	0	2	12	,,	102	P	3	12	£ 14	1	0
1	13	,,*	19	6	1	13	,,	61	6	2*	13	,,	103	6	3	13	,, 14	5	6
e	14	,,	21	0	1	14	,,	63	0	2	14	12	10€	0	3	14	,, 14	7	0
•			22	6	1	15	,,	€4	6	2	15	,,	106	6	3	15	,, 148	3	6
	16	,,	[[] 24	0	1	16	,,	66	0	2	16	,,	108	0,	3	16	,, 15	0	0
	i 7	,,	25	6	1	17	,,	67	6	2	17	,,	109	6	3	17	,, 15	i	6
	18	,,	27	0	1	18	,,	69	0	2	18	.,	111	Q.	3	18	4,, 15	3	0
	19	,,	28	6	1	19	,,	70	6				112	6	3	19	, , 15	4	6
	2 0	,,	30	0		20		72	0	2	20	,,	J''	0.	3	20	,, 15	6	(
•	21	ţ,	31	6		21,		73	6	2	21	,,	115	G	3	21	,, 15	7	(
	22	"	.33	0	ì	22	,,	75,	0	2	22	,,	117	0	3	22	,, 16	9	(
	23	٠,,	34	c 0	1	23	12	76	6	2	23	,,	118	6	3	23	,, 10	0	(
	24	,,	36	0	1	24	٠,,	78	0	2	24	£,	120	0	3	24	,, 10	2	١,
	25	"	37	6	1	25		79	€6	2	25	,,	121	. 6	3	25	,, 10	3	1
	26	4	30	ຸຄົ		2 6		81	•0	2	26	"	123	0	-3	26	,, 16	55	,
	27	1)	40	6	1	27	"	82	6	2	27	,,	124	6	-3	27	,, 16	6	
				_	_		_	_4 _	4 —	<u>.</u>		_			<u> </u>				_

ON THE SUBSIDIARY BOOKS OF THE WORKSHOP.

PERHAPS at no former period has there been a stronger desire than at present, among manufacturers, to arrive at costs and prevent waste in the workshops. The more costly the metals, the greater necessity there is for checks. The greater the competition in a trade, the greater necessity for arriving accurately at prime costs.

We hope to place this important subject clearly before the reader keeping out of view the ordinary books of an accountant, such as day-books and ledgers: these are understood by book-keepers, and require no remarks here. Should the reader be ignorant of such, he can be supplied by any bookseller with works on the subject. We only purpose treating of subsidiary or workshop books. First,

THE CASTERS' BOOK.

EVERY morning the easters have their metals weighed out to them from the store, and booked as follows:—

GIVEN OUT.

۰	Date.	Copper.	Zinc.	Brass	Tm.	Lead.		Total		
	1868.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	₩s.	lbs.	ewt.	(ARP)	lbs	
	April 3	112	56	81	4	14	2		21	•
	,, 4	200	100	3.5	4	10	3	0	14	ĺ

On the opposite page, and in the same lines, are entered every evening the returns in the following manner:—

RETURNED.

						~~.						
Date.	Fine Custings.	Commn. Custngs.	Gates	Copr.	Zine	Ţin.	Lead.		Total	. 1	Loss.	
1868.	lbs.	lbs.	lbe.	lbs.	lb«.	lbs.	îlis.	cwt.	qrs.	lbs	per cent.	l
Apr.3	200	24	33	4	2	1	2	2	1	14	2.64	l
' " 4	200•	80	56	3	1	0	1	3	0	5	2.65	l

The difference between the totals of the given-outs and the returns is entered in the last column, headed by Loss, so as to show the percentage of loss every day. Thus, on April 3rd, on 266 lbs. of returns there is a lose of 7 lbs, which comes to 2.64 per cent. On April 4th there are 9 lbs. of loss on 341 lbs., which comes to 2.65 per cent.

At the bottom of every page the columns containing eastings on returned side are added up, and the summation carried over to next page; and this is repeated until the end of each month, when the result will show the amount of castings produced during the month. At the end of each month obtain the following results—

1st. Total weight of castings produced;

2nd. Average loss per cent.;

3rd. The proportions between copper, zinc, &c., used.

These results are entered into a result-book, to be hereafter explained

THE MOULDING AND CASTING SHOPS EXPENSES BOOK.

In this book are entered, under separate headings, every expense inside the casting and moulding shops, except for new plant. Thus, sands, coke, pettics, wages, rent, interest on plant, &c., are made up to the end of every month, taking care to carry to the following mouth the quantities in stock, and not to include these quantities in the result, which result is carried to the result-book as

4th. The expenses of moulding and easting.

The interest on plant requires to be rated atten per cent. Such articles as brushes, which go soon to waste, are not included in plant, but belong to the general expenses.

THE RESULT-BOOK.

In this book are collected all the results of other tooks, under headings, and bearing dates. Thus, from the two books already named we collect.

. 1st. The total weight of castings produced;

2nd. Average loss per cent.;

3rd. The proportion between copper, zinc, &c., used;

4th. The expenses of moulding and casting -

'A. Wages;

B. Abother expenses

Having arrived at these results, we are able to

arrive at the net cost of the eastings. Of course the price paid at the time for the ingot metals will be known. Thus:—

1st. Total weight produced, one month, 3 tons 1 cwt

3rd.	The proport	tions and prices	ben	ng,	_				6		
	•	6		¢\$					£	8.	d
		2 tons copper	at	80			•		160	6	(
	•	h ton zine	,, ,	28		1			• • 28	0	.,1
		84 lbs. tin 🕻	,, 1	00	per :	ton			3	15	- (
	1		*				e)		, 0	7	- (
	, 6	4-					•			_	_
							•		192	2	1
2nd.	Avelage los	ss 2·75 per cent.						÷	5	5	
		l other expenses					٠	•	115	15	- 1
									£313	2	-

Dividing this sum by the weight produced, we arrive at elevenpence per pound as the net cost of the castings produced; the operation being, 3 tons 1 cwt equals 6,832 lbs., and £313 2s. 8d. equals 75,15: pence.

6832)75152(11d per pound.

6832 6832

"It must now he perfectly clear that the same principle carried out in each department will yield lik results.

THE DIPPING AND LACQUERING BOOK.
In this book everything used during one month, an all wages paid during the same period, together with

proportion of rent and interest on plant, are carried to result took as-

5th. Experies, dipping and lacquering—A. Weges,

B. All other expenses.

Then all goods passing from these departments; being measured and reduced to superficial feet, are earlied to result-book as—

6th. Superficial feet dipped and lacquered.

Then the expenses, divided by superficial feet, gives the east of dipping and lacquering per foot.

THE FINISHERS' BOOK.

In this book are entered all wages and every o'h' expense, including rent and interest on plant; and from this book are earlied monthly to the result-book—

7th. Wages;

8th. All other expenses.

Under wages we only include wages paid to producers, that is, to those whose time is entered against the job at which they are working. The wages of hon-producers, such as labourers, are entered along with other general expenses. Except where there is a blast-furnace, the whole expense of the engine is charged among expenses. Having arrived at these results, the following proportion is struck:—

As one month's wages are to one month's expenses, so is one pound of wages to the expenses on one pound of wages.

THE TIME AND, MATERIAL BOOK.

In this book are entered together the workmen's time at their respective jobs, or the sum allowed if on piece-work, and all the materials used at said jobs.

We have now gone through all the books necessary to arrive exactly at the cost of work, from the moment the work is given out from the store or warehouse, until it returns to the store or warehouse finished; and we have only to express the hope that the arrangement set forth hero will be found of service to the reader.

The is connected with the question of cost another question of too much importance to be treated of in a few pages, and which, therefore, we cannot enter upon here, but simply throw it out that the reader may think over it. The question is, What should the work cost?—and this question is quite different from, What does the work cost?

SUNDAY PRACTICAL RECEIPTS.

For Comenting Brass Letters to Glacs Windows :-

¹⁶ parts copal varnish,

⁵ parts drying oil, 3 parts turpentine,

³ parts turpentine, 3 parts oil of ditto.

⁵ parts liquid glue,

¹⁰ parts stucco.

For Fixing Metal to Leather:

Wash the metal in hot gelatine, Steep the leather in hot gall-nut infusion, And unite white hot.

For Fixing Metal to Marble, Stone, or Wood:-

4 parts carpenters' glue, 1 part renice turpentine.

For Fixing Glass to Glas: :-

A. slarine glue givos a black join.

B •Curd of milk, Quicklime, Camphor.

For Coating Acid Troughs:-

1 part pitch, 1 part rosin, 1 part plaster of Karıs (perfectly dry), Melted together.

For Cold Tinning :--

Tin + mercury: -Mix till soft and friable, clean with spirits of salt, and, while moist, rub on the above annulgam, and after the metal is tinned eveporate the mercury by heat.

N.B.—Avoid using the above for dishes or pans.

For Cold Silvering :-

10

f part chloride of silver, 3 parts pearlash, b) parts common salt, 1 part whiting.

Clean the metal with soft leather or cork, moisten the metal with water, and rule on the above. After the result is silvered, wash in het water slightly alkaline.

1381	,	THE BRASSFO	under's manual.
	يو. ن و	Tons required to	(gaod
	rths, &	Cubic feet in a ton,	8888444406811111111111111111111111111111
	Stones, Earths, &c.	Weight of a cubic foots at 1 lbs.	11142
	20	Specific gravity.	8 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9
TUTHORITIES.	f	Name.	Marble average Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong Further Strong
	. J 45	Tatio of powerm tl. Just to more of heat.	00 - 5 1 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
VARI		Seale as conductors of electricity.	w = 21
MATERIALS, FY VARIOUS	-	Ratio of hardness.	1.5. 1.5. 1.5. 1.5. 1.5. 1.5. 1.5. 1.5.
IATERI	Metls.	ng ducitity.	
	7	Ultimate cohesive strength of an inch sq. pasm in tons. Scale of wne-draw-	1112 125 2 8 7 8 1 2 8
PROPERTIES OF		Contraction Contracts of an unth per linest the average tempera- ture in solid state, a	1118813481 8:11 2 8:88 1 8:48
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,		Yperolly gravity. Wa&r ≥1000,	12.50 12.50
	1.,	Name.	Pathum Pare Gold Mercur Pure Gold Pure Silver Fore Silver

$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	IMPERIAL STANDARD WIRE-GAUGE OF SIZES, WRIGHTS, LENGTIS, AND BREAKING STRAINS OF IRON WIRE, PREPARED BY THE IRON AND STREE WIRE MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIA- TION.									
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	•	DIAMETER.		rea	WEIGHT OF.			BREAT STRA	KING INS.	ي.
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Size on Wire Gauge	Inch.	Mille metres	Sectional A in squite in hes.		Mile C	Length o			Кас бан.
18 048 1:2 0018 1:8 32 6222 97 145 16 19 049 1 0018 1:2 21 9333 67 100 19	5/0 5/0 1/0 2/0 2/0 1/0 1 2 3 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18	-161 -132 -200 -372 -348 -320 -276 -252 -212 -176 -160 -144 -124 -104 -092 -072 -064 -056 -048	11:8 11 10:2 9:4 8:8 8:2 7:6 5:9 5:4 4:7 3:3 3 2 1:8 1:6 1:4 1:2	1691 1466 14267 1087 1087 1089 0707 0598 0159 0424 0353 0353 0201 0164 0106 0085 0066 0086 0006 0001 0002 0001	193 4 1665 4 1444 1 1238 1074 1 937 8 120 6 686 9 49 1 41 6 348 2 28 5 24 19 8 16 12 7 10 4 8 4 6 5 5 4 3 2 2 2 1 8 1 8 1 8 1 8 1 8 1 8 1 8 1 8 1	3 404 2030 2541 2541 2549 1885 1429 1429 1425 1037 864 422 348 282 223 183 148 114 88 114 88 148 148 148 32	58, 677, 78, 91, 105, 120, 138, 161, 190, 228, 269, 393, 467, 700, 882, 2240, 2800, 3500, 467, 6222	10176, 9017, 7814, 77814, 77814, 77814, 77814, 77814, 789, 789, 789, 789, 789, 789, 789, 789	15700 18525 1745 1745 1745 1745 1745 1748 1748 1748 1748 1748 1748 1748 1748	6/0 5/0 4/0 8/0 8/0 1/0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17

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